

The Historical Outlook

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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Some Current Criticisms of the Teaching of History

By PROFESSOR BURR W. PHILLIPS
University of Wisconsin

It is hardly necessary to point out the fitness of addressing history teachers on such a theme. The title of this paper should have a familiar ring to those who have been at all alive to developments in our field during the last two or three decades. Many of us have lived through and survived the fads and fancies of at least a generation of history teaching. We have conscientiously tried out and sought to adapt to our own classroom needs projects and problems, the source method, current events, units of learning of every shape and description, topical arrangements and a host of other devices. And we have taught history backwards as well as forwards.

Most of us remember the time when history occupied a proud place in the curriculum of the four year high school. The Committee of Seven recommended a four, or at the very least a three year sequence, a year each of Ancient, Medieval and Modern, English History and American History and Government. And I suspect that most of us in our own high school courses had at least three of those four blocks of history. A heavy responsibility, indeed, when a subject has a possible monopoly on a fourth or a fifth of the credits required for graduation from high school.

But consider for a moment the curriculum changes of the last thirty-five years. First, the very necessary shift of emphasis from ancient and medieval history to the modern period and the concomitant demand for more teaching of current events, or current history; then the discovery that much of the history taught in the schools was very one-sided and partial, largely political, dynastic and military, and the growing conviction that textbook writers and teachers must expand and enrich their concept of history so as to include a well-rounded account of the evolution of civilization in its manifold aspects; then the equally reasonable insistence on the part

of the other social studies that they must have a place in the curriculum—reasonable especially when one recalls that history had obviously failed to realize its own possibilities and obligations as a social study. So steady and so inevitable has been the trend that we have become teachers of history *and the other social studies*, or today, in many schools, simply teachers of an amorphous field somewhat pretentiously designated as “social science.” Instead of two or three credits in history, our students are graduated with one or two credits in social studies, which may or may not include a year of history. Ancient, medieval and modern history have been telescoped into a one year course in World History; or in some schools a two year sequence in World History has been developed so as to include both American and non-American history. Or we hear of two or three year sequences in social science in which history finds place only very incidentally.

MUCH THAT IS GOOD IN THE PAST GENERATION

My chief purpose in sketching briefly the well-known trends of the last generation is to point out that out of this thirty-five years of experience has come much that is to the good, and to suggest that some of our contemporary critics might do well to take that progress into account. One is led to suspect that many of them are still thinking in terms of the history that was taught a generation ago by untrained teachers—and not in terms of history as the trained student and teacher understands the term. Frequently the critic's concept of history and that of the trained teacher of history are so far apart that to bridge the gap seems a hopeless task.

And there may be valid reasons for the caricature of history that exists in the minds of our critics. We are still faced with the problem of the mediocre

teacher. After reading Professor Carl Becker's rather pessimistic article in the December *Education*,¹ one is inclined to wonder if we aren't all a pretty mediocre lot, trying to educate a very mediocre generation of students! Those of us who at least pretend to train teachers are still very much aware of the fact that too often our best history majors will go out to teach algebra and general science, while the history classes will be taught by persons trained to teach music, foreign languages or physical education. The notion is still all too prevalent that anyone who can read can teach history, and that to teach history requires no special training in either content or method. If history teaching is to be judged by results attained by mediocre or poorly placed teachers, then one can find much sympathy for the attitude of many of our critics.

Admitting that much history that is taught in the schools is still poorly taught by mediocre or inferior teachers or by teachers unfortunately placed, and that many schools are still using antiquated textbooks and little or no supplementary material, let us consider the progress that has been made in our better classrooms and which is so frequently ignored in current criticisms of history and history teaching.

First, as to content. If there is such a thing as the "new history," the place to look for it is in the better secondary school classrooms. Time was when the teacher could teach textbook history that was mainly political and military, devoting precious class time to cataloguing the happenings of a president's administration, or to a study of the campaigns and battles of the Revolutionary or Civil War. Today, no trained teacher can be content with such a limited concept of history. Materials that used to be tagged and catalogued separately as political, social, economic, geographical and cultural are now taught as closely integrated parts of a history which seeks to give a well-rounded, well-proportioned picture of the experience of the race,—a history which shows the past as it was and which gives the historical background and evolution of present day institutions and problems,—a history which, by furnishing training in a method of approach and in habits of thinking, attempts to do its part in preparing for the citizenship of tomorrow. Criticism of the old military and political history and pressure from the other social studies have awakened us to a new realization of what history is and what part it can play in the training of citizens. Continued demands for the teaching of current events have awakened us to challenging possibilities in the matter of integrating current history with every history course, and conversely, of relating the past to the present. The teacher

of the new history knows that she is not making the fullest possible use of an historic fact unless her pupils see it in its two-fold relation—to its own immediate setting, and to the present to which it points.

So much for the enrichment of the content and meaning of history. That we have often been slow to respond to pressure in behalf of an enriched course is no reason for closing our eyes to the fact that our courses have been enriched and made more significant and meaningful.

If we have learned another lesson from the searching criticism of the past generation, I suggest that it is that we have learned the necessity of thinking more clearly in terms of our objectives. We have not yet been reduced to the need of analyzing the advertising sections of current periodicals for historical references and allusions to justify the teaching of our subject. But in the past, at least some of our colleagues have been so zealous to prove the utility of history that their list of objectives have been more confusing than helpful. And if some of us today appear to be a bit confused by pedagogical discussions of the ultimate objectives of education, there would seem to be all the more need of clear thinking in our own field. Much of that thinking has now been done for us by the admirable work of the Social Studies Investigation, as it is reflected in the Beard "Charter for the Social Sciences."² If that part of the Commission's report has made it plain to us that our objectives must be shaped by the "spirit and letter of scholarship," by the "realities and ideas of society," and by the "nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process," a long step has been taken in the direction of determining the more specific objectives of instruction in history and the other social studies.

In the field of method, the new teacher of history can report progress. Units of learning have been made more harmonious with both the learning process and the nature of history. Instead of hearing pupils recite lessons based on textbook memorization, the new teacher studies history with her pupils. The emphasis has been shifted from the memorization of facts to an understanding of the movements and trends of history; for the question and answer approach there has been substituted the problem and discussion approach. At the same time, if the teacher has kept her own sense of proportion, she knows, and her pupils know, that the change means merely a shift of emphasis,—that one can not arrive at understandings which are not based upon facts, and that generalizations and opinions and attitudes are of value and useful only in so far as they have factual content. The pupils themselves are resentful of some of the ultra-mod-

ern texts which simplify the story all out of proportion and which so frequently interrupt the narrative to point out perfectly obvious "lessons" and "applications," while they ignore interesting and necessary details. Most pupils dislike being written or talked down to.

Those of us who are responsible for the teaching of teachers have had to be especially alive to the new demands made upon the history teacher. We have revised our own courses and the requirements for the teaching major in our field until some of us have felt that our department should have a standing committee on the revision of the requirements for the teaching major. Our courses for "teachers of history in the four year high school" have become courses for "teachers of history and the other social studies in the junior and senior high schools." Our majors are required to take, in varying amounts, courses not only in history, but in economics, political science, geography, sociology and the like, in preparation for teaching the type of history as well as other courses in the social studies which they are expected to teach now days. Incidentally it is significant that the American Historical Association's committee on the teaching of history in the schools has become a Commission on Social Studies in the Schools and has been expanded for the purposes of the present investigation to include representatives of the other social studies.

HAS PROGRESS BEEN MADE?

Such is a brief survey of the progress of the last thirty-five years in the fields of content, objectives and method;—progress made in response to wholesome and well-intended pressure and criticism from without and to searching self-criticism and painstaking experimentation and investigation from within. In content, objectives and method of approach, there should be a vast difference between the teaching of history of today and that of a generation ago. And yet if one takes seriously the assumptions of some of our contemporary critics, one is almost led to wonder if any advance has been made and if history teaching is not about where it was in the nineties.

The more serious contemporary criticisms of history in the schools are none too easy to document. Rather, they appear to be implicit in the programs for reorganization of the secondary school and in the assumptions which underlie many of these programs.

After a period of world upheaval and economic disaster, criticism of the social order which made such a catastrophe possible is to be expected and welcomed. It is natural to ask why the schools of the nation and of the world have not done society a better service by foreseeing and helping to pre-

vent such disaster. And within the schools the social studies, which deal more especially with society and its institutions must submit to their share of criticism and blame. That the social studies are expected to play an important part in this period of world reconstruction should be apparent even to the most casual reader of educational literature. An article by a high school principal, read before the Social Science section of the N.E.A. last June and printed in the October number of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* is typical.³ May I quote several passages from this article: "We are now writing the verdict on the case of real, meaningful, pragmatic, directive education as concerns the social studies in the American high school!" "Social science libraries should be made the power plants of our schools." "We must see to it that high school students form and have ideals regarding such issues (prohibition, unemployment, government, economy, inflation, farm relief, etc.) that will ultimately lead to a better economic and social order." How are these objectives to be realized? Reading further we learn that no overview of our society is possible today without considerable fusion of the social sciences. In the author's opinion "it is a deplorable fact that progress has been so dreadfully slow in the construction of functional units for the courses of study in the social sciences. Also, that progress has not been more rapid in those methods of teaching which employ functional and fused technique." As for the place of history in the new curriculum we learn that Denver has announced a new course in social studies for the senior high school "in which there will be no study of chronological history. All of the social science will be built around the world of today and what it is to be. History will be studied only as an interpretation of our own time and in the planning of tomorrow."

In the passages just cited are to be found the most common assumptions with regard to the place of history and the social studies in the schools, in which are implicit criticisms of history teaching which have not yet been frankly faced. Three assumptions stand out: that upon the schools, and particularly upon the social studies, rests the heavy responsibility of *building the new social order*; that this can be accomplished only through a *fusion technique*; and that *functional units of learning* must be substituted for the usual organization into units of subject matter. Let us examine these three assumptions together with their implications.

DOES HISTORY PREPARE FOR A NEW SOCIAL ORDER?

Running through much of our current educational writing is one constantly recurring theme; if our social order has failed in the present crisis, it is because the schools have failed to *indoctrinate*

future citizens with ideals making for social, economic and political justice and stability. Since one of our chief objectives in history should be to train thinking and acting citizens who will be competent to build a new social order based upon ideals, we can find little fault with the main thesis of the indoctrinators. We may be afraid of the word "indoctrination," but much of our teaching is in terms of ideals and attitudes which we assume to be a necessary part of the makeup of a good citizen. But when it comes to the more specific items in the programs of some of the advocates of indoctrination, many of us begin to have scruples. It is so difficult to draw the line between wise indoctrination and well-meant, but ill-advised and misdirected propaganda. The Beard "Charter" seems to have laid the foundation for the development of a more detailed program in history and the social studies which, we hope, will succeed in making that very necessary distinction between propaganda and indoctrination.

MUST SOCIAL SCIENCES BE FUSED?

There is raised also the question of the need of *fusing* materials drawn from the various social disciplines into a course usually referred to as "Social Science." In its essentials, this is hardly a new suggestion. For years, as we have already noted, teachers of history have been disregarding the old boundary lines between subjects, and realizing that history can be made the most inclusive and meaningful subject in the curriculum, they have consciously drawn upon the other social disciplines as their concept of history has been extended and enriched. But there is this fundamental difference between the results of the fusion that has been going on in the history field and fusion in those courses which are commonly designated as "social science." The history teacher has preserved the chronological approach as well as the spirit of history. The result is a unified, well-integrated content which corresponds to life in a dynamic, growing society. The history teacher has sought to arrive at a synthesis, but it is a synthesis which preserves the historical approach as its unifying principle. With such a fusion course we can find much sympathy. But so frequently the new course in "social science" seems to have *diffusion* rather than *fusion* and integration as its guiding principle.

ARE OUR COURSES FUNCTIONAL?

It is when we come to the third assumption, that units of learning must be *functional*, that I find it most difficult to understand the progressive curriculum maker. In the proposed fused and functional courses in "social science," history as such disappears. The most plausible conclusion is that history

teachers have failed and that history is no longer worthy of a place in the curriculum; or perhaps we have here evidence of a very fundamental misunderstanding or disagreement as to what history is and what it can be expected to do for the future citizen. That in the new functional units the pupil will study the history of the family, the history of our industrial society, or the history of religion, is cold comfort. Many of us have experimented with such topical treatments and have come to the conclusion that the disadvantages of such an approach far outweigh its advantages. One of my colleagues⁴ recently described the topical approach, which is only an earlier form of the functional unit, as comparable to listening to first the strings, then the wood-winds, and then, possibly, the percussion instruments, when one might just as well be listening to the whole symphony. I have been told that the analogy has no weight whatever, but I suspect that it has some point—at least for students of history. To change the figure, if one has anything like an adequate view of the history of man and his institutions, he is apt to be somewhat wary of a sort of pedagogical vivisection which tends to destroy the pupil's concept of society as an organic, living, developing whole. He will want his pupils to have at least an introductory background of history to acquaint them with that vast network of interrelations which characterizes the whole story of human society, and without which one is almost bound to get a distorted view of the institutions or problems he studies. It is only through chronological history that such a background for the study of present day institutions and problems can be gained. In fact that background and that approach to the study of modern problems would seem to be a unique contribution which history alone can make to the education of the future citizen.

I am bound to admit that the word "functional" worries me. I wonder if it isn't just another of those *loaded* words, so plausible, so pleasing to the ear, and yet so difficult to define critically or to challenge without being forced to appear obscurantist and reactionary. But why is it assumed that subject matter must be *diffused* before the learning unit can be truly functional? Our high school juniors have been studying the fascinating developments in France, Italy and Germany between 1848 and 1875. In Cavour, Bismarck and Napoleon III they have made an objective study of the game of diplomacy and state-craft; they have seen how wars are made and how constitutions grow; they have seen in conflict the forces of liberalism and reaction, of church and state, of the civilian and military groups; and they have heard the cry for economic and social as well as political justice. In the Prussian Zollverein as well as in the economic foundations which Cavour

laid for Italian unification, they have discovered the principle that economic penetration and coöperation are very apt to be followed by political penetration and coöperation or absorption. Present day Franco-German and Austro-German relations have assumed a new significance and importance for them; and they are watching with a quickened interest the program of the Hitler government and the outcome of the recent German elections. It should be noted, too, that each one of the problems studied has a universal and present day significance as well as a significance for the period studied. Through the medium of their study of eighteenth and nineteenth century Europe, our pupils are coming to see the political, economic, social, and even the spiritual problems of twentieth century Europe and of the world today against a background of origins and development and, still more important, of inter-relations. I have no desire to play with words, but if we are interested in training future world-citizens to take a lively and critical interest in world affairs, then I should claim that the type of history teaching just described is functional in the best sense. But I am told it is not, because our units of learning are organized in terms of subject matter and because we still test in terms of subject matter. In this reply, I suspect a question-begging fallacy, and consequently I find it all the more difficult to meet the argument. Because we retain subject matter organization, is it to be supposed that our first interest is in the teaching of subject matter? The Beard "Charter" very admirably points out that one of the principal objectives of our teaching must be "the creation of rich and many-sided personalities." My contention is that our units of learning in history, even though they may be organized in terms of subject matter and content, are nevertheless capable of being functional units in a very true sense, when the child becomes the teacher's first interest, and when subject matter becomes a means toward awakening and developing in the child a feeling of world-citizenship.

One is moved to ask, why the determined effort to drop from the curriculum all traces of anything that the student of history would call history? Such a question is difficult to answer. One senses the feeling, already referred to, that historians and history teachers have failed to save society from the present crisis. There seems, too, to be a widespread suspicion of historians because history has to be re-written so often, because it is next to impossible to find a history that is really definitive, and because the members of the craft do not always agree in their interpretations of the facts of history. There appears to be a failure to understand the essential differences between the historical science, with materials and method peculiar to itself, and the more exact sci-

ences which deal with fairly tangible data rather than with mere traces left by social phenomena. Perhaps the very term "social science" has been misleading. In some quarters there seems to be suspicion of a science many of whose outcomes appear to defy immediate and objective testing and measurement. And there is certainly the failure to give credit for the very real advance in history teaching made during the last generation. Of course this is only a partial diagnosis; whether or not it is correct is impossible to determine. It may, however, suggest some respects in which curriculum makers will have to be enlightened in the very near future if history is to remain in the curriculum. And I suppose that much of the responsibility for this enlightenment rests with the teacher of history.

HARMONY OF HISTORY AND UNITS OF LEARNING

Some years ago there appeared in one of the monthly magazines a monograph entitled "The Musings of an Inebriated Historian." It may have occurred to some of you that this paper should have been called "The Ramblings of a Bewildered History Teacher." Surely no one in the social studies field can claim infallibility in answering the questions which have been raised, though of course it is an advantage to know which of the questions have been raised before and how other generations of teachers have solved them. Some of us must plead guilty to having read Professor Henry Johnson's "Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences"⁵ with just a little amusement. It is a comfort to be reminded that most, if not all, of the approaches to the teaching of history described as new have been tried out again and again under different names, and with varying degrees of success. Professor Johnson's contribution to the report of the Commission should be very helpful to those curriculum makers who are willing to make use of the experience of past generations of history teachers. And if this present paper, in addition to raising a number of questions, has suggested that there is no fundamental contradiction between the historical approach and units of learning that are truly fused and functional, its purpose will have been accomplished.

On the other hand, it may be that, in this period of reconstruction, history teachers and curriculum makers alike will have to consider seriously the very tentative and somewhat pessimistic conclusions of Professor Carl Becker in the December number of *Education*.⁶ He suggests that "the teaching of history, to be best worth while, should be based on what the pupils already know, and are likely to know and to be doing later," that much of our instruction must be adapted to the "general run" of pupils, the great majority of whom will be "just

ordinary citizens," and that our present courses contain "too much information of which they can make but little use." He proposes, again very tentatively, unless I misinterpret the whole tone of his paper, "a course, or courses, carefully coördinated, which would include all that the schools now offer in history, government, economics, and the like." Its aim would be "a useful knowledge of the world in which (the pupil) lives." He would study the chief countries of the world as they are today. To understand things as they are today "the pupil would need to know something of the 'background' as it is called, that is to say, something of the historical origins of present institutions and customs. The acquisition of this knowledge would constitute his study of 'history.'" But history would not be taught as a separate course. So it appears that even the usually "conservative" historian can think and write in terms of curricular reconstruction, making only the most modest claims for his subject. I suspect that the amount of history actually studied by the pupils in such a course and in the end the effectiveness of the course itself would depend upon the historical training of the teacher in charge. And in the long run I am afraid that the educational

validity of a course in which history is taught only incidentally must always be a matter of controversy. The "Charter for the Social Sciences" suggests that "history can furnish cement to bind all other social disciplines into a workable unity, giving to them a patterned background and, by virtue of its basic time element, a dynamic which pertains to the future."⁷ Here, indeed, is a real challenge for teachers of history and a suggestion for curriculum makers. When both groups are more generally awakened to the basic importance of the historical approach and the full possibilities of history as a social study, it may be that we shall have courses in history and the social studies which are truly fused and truly functional.

¹ Carl Becker, "Capitalizing History in the School." *Education*, Dec. 1932.

² Charles A. Beard, *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, Scribners, 1932.

³ L. N. Morrisett, "The High School in the Age of Depression," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Oct., 1932.

⁴ Professor John D. Hicks, in an address before the History section of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, at Milwaukee, November, 1932.

⁵ Henry Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences*. Scribners, 1932.

⁶ *op. cit.*

⁷ *op. cit.*, p. 20

The Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of Mexico

By CARLOS E. CASTANEDA

Latin-American Librarian, University of Texas

RECENT CHANGES

The last ten years have seen a widespread and far-reaching movement in this country to reorganize the secondary schools. The feeling that this division of the public school system had other functions than to prepare the students for the university or the professional studies, became more and more insistent after the World's War; the intensification of the industrial life of the country demanded fundamental changes in the curriculum that had become traditional, hallowed by time. With increasing painfulness it was realized that the young boy or girl who attended the secondary schools in many instances did not continue his or her studies in the university or the professional schools, either for lack of inclination or because circumstances demanded that he or she earn a living. Consequently the curriculum has been reorganized, made more varied and flexible, to meet the growing needs of the individual student.

Independent of the American movement but as a

result of social forces of similar nature, Mexico has reorganized her secondary schools along lines that closely parallel those of this country. Just as the junior high schools and colleges are but manifestations of a growing conviction of the dynamic character of this division of the public school system in this country, so are the *institutos* and the reorganized preparatory schools of Mexico a recognition of its multiple and varied ends.

The Revolution of 1910, which began as a political protest, soon became a formidable movement for social and economic reform that shook Mexican society to its very foundations. When the smoke of the terrific struggle began to clear, after the first ten years of intense strife, public opinion demanded that the government give its first attention to the reorganization of the school system. Heretofore education had been designed for the select few, the urban population of the larger cities had enjoyed a fair measure of opportunities, but the rural communities, the great masses, had been totally neg-

lected. An intensive campaign to reach every nook and corner was organized; teachers, filled with missionary zeal, volunteered to go into the mountains; schools sprang up overnight like wildfire, and the educational revolution of Mexico began its work of regeneration, fully convinced that true democracy rests upon an enlightened citizenry.

CHANGES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

No part or unit of the general school system underwent more fundamental and more significant changes than the secondary schools. In 1926 a new division was created in the Department of Public Education known as the *Dirección de Enseñanza Secundaria* (Bureau of Secondary Education). In Mexico, though the states are allowed full freedom in matters of education, there is a federal Department of Education that organizes and maintains federal schools throughout the republic to cooperate with the local agencies and to coordinate the efforts of the various states. The *Dirección de Enseñanza Secundaria* was organized to provide a technically trained body of experts to aid in and give direction to the administration of the secondary schools throughout the country and to act as a coordinating agency to set up common standards in all secondary schools whether federal, state, or private. According to Mexican educators the fundamental purpose of the secondary school is to bridge the gap between the primary and the professional school, but it should further prepare the student to take his or her place in active life if for any reason the individual fails to continue in school. The curriculum should be so planned, therefore, as to fulfill a threefold purpose: To prepare the individual to assume the civil duties and responsibilities which modern democracy demands, to impart such training as will enable him more efficiently to share in the production and distribution of the general wealth, and to give him a general fund of information that will lay the foundation for a professional career if desired.

Keeping in mind these general principles let us now consider briefly the general organization of the secondary schools in Mexico before taking up in detail the teaching of history. Under the general designation of secondary schools are included what corresponds to the senior and junior high schools, the *institutos* organized somewhat after the French plan, the junior colleges, and the preparatory schools. The general course of study for this division in the public system of education averages five years. This is divided into two cycles: the first varying from two to three years, corresponds more or less to the junior and senior high schools in this country; and the second, generally of three years, more properly termed preparatory, corresponds more or less to the junior college, as graduates from

these schools are ready to enter directly the various professional schools of the university such as law or medicine. For admission to the first cycle the student must have completed satisfactorily the first six grades which constitute the primary division and which in turn is generally divided into four years of primary and two years of intermediate instruction. The age of the student ready to begin his secondary education ranges from thirteen to sixteen years. It should be borne in mind, however, that the average Mexican student is more mature mentally and physically than the corresponding sixth grader in the American schools. In addition to the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic, he has had introductory courses in Mexican history, geography, physiology, general science, and language. During the first two years of secondary instruction his general information is broadened and intensified, he receives manual or vocational training and is obliged to take physical education. As a result, by the time the Mexican student is ready to begin his actual preparatory studies, corresponding more to the junior college of this country than the senior high school, he has been subjected to a more intensive period of study and has received a somewhat wider fund of general information.

In the second cycle generally designated as preparatory and which includes three years, the student carries the first year, under normal conditions, eighteen hours of class work a week for a period of thirty-six weeks. During the second and third years it is increased by two and a half hours a week required for laboratory experiments. In addition to his regular class hours he has to take physical education two hours a week, and choose between music or choral singing one hour a week. The total load is somewhat heavier than that carried by the average American student and a question may arise as to the thoroughness with which the work is done, but it should be kept in mind that the Mexican student has much more time for study even under this apparently heavier load because of the absence in Mexican schools of the intense social activity that has invaded the high schools, both senior and junior, in this country to say nothing of colleges and universities.

THE TEACHING FACULTY

A word should be said about the teaching faculty of the secondary schools in Mexico. Unlike in this country, these schools do not have a full time teaching staff. With the exception of the director or principal of the school and one or two full time teachers, the remainder of its personnel is made up of professional men who devote an hour or two a day three times a week to the subject they teach. The scale of compensation for this work is as follows:

To a person teaching 3 hours a week 18 pesos per week.

To a person teaching 5 hours a week from 30 to 36 pesos.

To a person teaching 7 to 9 hours a week from 42 to 54 pesos.

To a person teaching 18 hours a week 84 pesos. Consequently we find the teaching staff of the secondary schools in Mexico frequently made up of the leading lawyers, engineers, medical doctors, and other professional men who devote an hour or two a day to the teaching of their favorite subject. This system has many drawbacks, though it also has some advantages, but the time and the nature of this paper do not permit the discussion of this interesting question. It is stated here merely for information.

The *Dirección de Enseñanza Secundaria* has carefully prepared and printed detailed programs for each course included in the curriculum. Either because so many of the teachers are not full time members of the faculty, or because it is desired that those in charge of classes follow closely the same general plan adopted and recommended by the expert technicians, the programs are full and detailed in every particular. They state first the purposes or aims to be kept constantly in mind in the teaching of a given subject, then numerous suggestions for the teacher are given, full bibliographies for the course in general and for special topics are provided, the entire course is outlined, and sample exercises are furnished.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

In the curriculum of the preparatory schools in Mexico, which form the second cycle of secondary school education, history is taken up in the third or last year, corresponding to the senior year of the junior colleges in this country. The student is required to take two courses concurrently: one on the history of Mexico and one on General History. The teaching of this subject is purposely postponed till the last year in order that the student be more mature and shall have acquired a considerable fund of general information that will enable him to see history in all its varying aspects. With a general knowledge of literature, of the exact sciences, of institutional development, of civics, and of the general principles of economics, the student is better able to grasp and interpret the significant movements of history and the various epochs that mark the progress of man through the ages.

Nothing gives us a better idea of the importance attached to this subject in the general curriculum than the detailed statement of the aims the teacher is to keep in mind in teaching the course on General History.

1. It shall be the aim of the teacher to present to the student the panorama of the world in its various aspects, such as the political, the physical, the economic, and the ethical and religious, each of these to be considered as a constant factor throughout all time.

2. To make the student see the relation that exists between cause and effect and that underlies the life of the various peoples.

3. To develop in the student the notion of the reciprocal dependence that has always existed between the nations of the world, both in ancient and modern times.

4. To awaken a spirit of universal solidarity that shall find expression in an effort to improve the general condition of humanity.

5. To make the student realize the constant evolution of peoples, that he may better understand the present and be able to judge of the future.

6. To enable the student to see the unity of the human spirit, in spite of the apparent contradictions in its varied secondary manifestations.

7. To accustom him to participate in the solution of public questions as an active and conscious element.

8. To develop an impartial criterium that will enable him to judge independently events, persons, and ideas.

9. To raise his intellectual level to enable him to appreciate and enjoy culture in all its manifestations.

10. To develop in him habits of investigation and individual research in the quest of truth.

It is evident that these general aims, if kept constantly in mind by the history teacher, cannot but produce most desirable results. The various devices common to American schools, as the reading of selections from sources or contemporary accounts, the assignment of similar readings, the use of illustrations, old coins, medallions, statuary, maps, slides, and moving pictures, are likewise used by the teacher in Mexico to create interest and enliven the course.

GENERAL HISTORY COURSE

The course on General History is more or less an old-fashioned survey such as our fathers and grandfathers struggled with and came to relish two score of years ago. It includes the history of the world from the earliest times to our day and evidently cannot do justice to any particular period. It should be kept in mind, however, that the course runs throughout an entire year of thirty-six weeks with 108 recitation periods of one hour each. Judging from the outline and the method used in presenting it, there is little doubt in the mind of the writer that the course accomplishes its chief aim, the acquainting of the student with the gradual development of our civilization and the contribution of the various peoples to the general whole. A brief statement of the principal divisions of the course and the recitation hours allowed to each will give a better idea of the contents, scope, and the relative emphasis placed on each.

Three hours are allotted to the preliminary remarks in which the teacher is to acquaint the student with the nature of the subject, the sources used by historians for its elaboration, and the sciences that are its handmaids. To the second division, which includes a rapid survey of the early centers

of civilization in the East such as Egypt, Babylon, the Chaldeans, the Assyrians, the Phoenicians, and the Persians up to the time of Darius, eleven hours are allowed. Only fourteen recitations are assigned to classical Greece, its contribution and its glories. The teacher is particularly warned not to tarry on this naturally interesting and absorbing division. The rise of Sparta, the glory of Athens, the development of the various Greek states, and the Peloponnesian wars are hurriedly treated and this period is closed with a discussion of Alexander the Great and his work. Rome is next taken up and twenty-two hours are given to its history from its earliest beginning to the fall of the Empire. The Middle Ages form the subject matter of the fourth division to which seventeen hours are allowed. Beginning with the Teutonic invasions, the teacher rapidly surveys the rise of the Franks, the Byzantine Empire, the Arabs, Charlemagne and his work, the development of feudalism and chivalry, the mediaeval church, the Crusades, and the development of arts and letters, closing with a description of the general conditions and the principal states of Europe at the close of the XV century.

The modern era forms the fifth division. In a rapid survey to which seventeen recitation periods are allowed the teacher has to make a brief and cursory presentation of the era of discovery and exploration, the Reformation, the establishment of absolutism in France, and the Thirty Years' War, closing the period with a discussion of the social, economic, and intellectual progress made during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. The last division includes the contemporary period from the French Revolution to the World's War. To this are allowed twenty-four hours. The French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era are disposed of in six hours; one lecture is given to the Congress of Vienna; one hour to the independence of the United States of America and a similar period to the general wars of independence in all Latin America; the unification of Italy, the Franco-Prussian War and the unification of Germany are rapidly surveyed and then a discussion of the causes of the World's War, the developments to which it gave rise, and the progress made by Panamericanism closes the contemporary period.

As to method there is little or no difference between the teaching of history in this country and in Mexico. In the main the teacher lectures, having previously assigned readings to the class that will acquaint them with the subject to be discussed. There are frequent short discussions held to give an opportunity for the presentation of such questions as may have occurred to the student and to analyze the main issues of the principal topics discussed. Before beginning each of the divisions the members of the class are assigned individual papers

on the various topics, to be turned in at the close of the particular division. There are the usual oral and written quizzes, and a final examination which used to be oral, before a board of examiners composed of the teacher and two outsiders, but which is rapidly being replaced by the written examination. The semester system in vogue in this country is unknown in Mexico and the school year is not divided into semesters, but runs continuously for nine months at the end of which the student must stand a final examination on the whole course.

METHODS IN GENERAL HISTORY COURSE

Is a textbook used? What references is the student assigned? In the course on General History just described two textbooks are used: a one volume work entitled *Historia General* by Izquierdo y Croselles and the well known work of the distinguished French historiographer Charles Seignobos, *Histoire Ancienne* in three volumes, which has been translated into Spanish. A brief list of the general bibliography recommended to the student will give us a better idea of the materials handled by those who take the course.

Selected bibliography used by students:

General Works

- Seignobos, *La Méthode Historique appliquée aux sciences sociales*.
- Spengler, *La decadencia de Occidente*.
- Altamira, *La enseñanza de la Historia*.
- Cuestiones modernas de historia*.
- H. G. Wells, *Esquema de la Historia* (Outline of History).
- Lagrange, *El hombre primitivo*.
- Morgan, *La Humanidad prehistorica*.

Greece

- Duruy, *Historia de Grecia* (*Histoire Grecque*).
- Seignobos, *Historia de los Griegos* (*Histoire . . . de l'Orient et de la Grèce*).
- Menard, *Traducciones de Herodoto, Tucídides, Jenofonte* (Translations from Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, etc.).
- Plutarco, *Vidas paralelas* (Plutarch's Lives).
- Translations of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*.
- Menard y Sauvageot, *Instituciones de la antigüedad*.
- Fustel de Coulanges, *La cite antique*.
- Guiraud, *Vida publica y privada de los griegos*.

Rome

- Seignobos, *Historia de Roma* (Eng. tr. by G. William Fairley, *History of the Roman people*).
- Duruy, *Histoire Romaine* (tr. *Historia de Roma*).
- Michelet, *Historia de la República Romana*.
- Renán, *Historia del cristianismo*.
- Gibbon, *Decadencia del Imperio Romano* (*Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*).
- Menard, *Instituciones de la antigüedad*.
- Litre, *Los Barbaros*.
- Declareuil, *Roma y la organización del derecho*.
- Pierron, *Historia de la literatura romana*.

Middle Ages

- Colección de la Historia de las Naciones, *Los Godos y los Saracenos*.
- Lavissey y Rambaud, *Formación de los grandes estados de la historia*.

- Lebón, *Los árabes*.
 Seignobos, *La edad media (History of medieval and modern civilization)*.
 Langlois, *Edad Media*.
 Zeller, *Historia de Alemania y Conferencias sobre la edad media*.
 Altamira, *Historia de España*.
 Michelet, *Historia de Francia*.
 Bartolini, *Historia de Italia*.
 Green, *Historia del Pueblo Inglés*.
 Gautier, *La Caballería (The Age of Chivalry)*.
 Schmith, *La Iglesia en la Edad Media (The Church in the Middle Ages)*.
 Luchaire, *La Comunas (The Communes)*.

Modern Age

- Seignobos, *Historia de los tiempos modernos (Histoire moderne)*.
 Lavis and Rambaud, *El Renacimiento y la Reforma (The Renaissance and the Reformation)*.
 Gobineau, *La Renaissance*.
 Weber, *Historia de la filosofía*.
 Halfer, *Historia de las Ciencias*.
 Meuntz, *Historia del arte*.
 Pereyra, *Historia de la América Española*.
 Lavis and Rambaud, *Los Nuevos Mundos; Las Guerras de Religión; Luis XIV; El Siglo XVIII*.

Contemporary Period

- Michelet, *La Revolución Francesa*.
 Vandal, *El advenimiento de Bonaparte (The Rise of Napoleon)*.
 Cantu, *Los últimos treinta años*.
 Oncken, *Historical Series*, Volumes XXXI-XXXIV.
 Seignobos, *Historia política de la Europa contemporánea (Histoire politique de l'Europe contemporaine)*.
 MacDonald, *El movimiento Socialista*.
 Kropotkin, *La conquista del pan*.
 Sorel, *Reflexiones sobre la violencia*.

But it is impossible to give in a short paper a complete bibliography on each of the divisions as appears on the printed programs of study. What has been already set down is sufficient to give us an idea of the readings with which the student is supposed to supplement the lectures. It is to be noted that taken as a whole the works of French historians predominate on the list of references and that in many instances the original works are used. The average Mexican student is able to read French by the time he reaches the third year of preparatory school. English is being studied more widely now and there is considerable interest in the language as a result of the growing economic ties that are bringing this country closer to Mexico. It will be noted furthermore that a number of German works have been translated into Spanish and that there are a number of references to Spanish and Mexican authors as well.

THE COURSE IN MEXICAN HISTORY

Having discussed in detail the course on General History it will be easier now to present more briefly the course on Mexican History which is likewise taught in the senior year of the preparatory schools in Mexico. Like the general survey, it is a full year's course of thirty-six weeks with one hun-

dred and eight recitation periods. It is naturally fuller and more detailed, its scope being confined to one country. The purposes and aims to be kept in mind by the teacher are similar to those in the other course except that in this case patriotism, loyalty to country, and honor to its outstanding characters is to be emphasized. The teacher is admonished to keep ever present the words of one of Mexico's first and foremost historians, Lucas Alamán, who said "No study can be more important than that which reveals to us our origin, the elements that make up our society, whence came our national customs and habits, the sources of our legislation, our present civil, political and religious mores, the means by which we have reached the state in which we find ourselves, and the difficulties that have had to be overcome in attaining it."

The teacher is reminded that in teaching this course he has at hand innumerable means for creating a live interest in the subject by utilizing the numerous museums, libraries, old churches, missions, and ancient monuments found in the various parts of the republic. At the capital the teacher of history has added advantages in the National Museum, the National Gallery of Art of San Carlos, the National Library, and numerous public buildings that date back to the early days of the conquest. But practically every city and town of any importance has its historical monuments which can be used to advantage by the teacher who visits them with his class.

As in the case of the General History survey, the course on the History of Mexico is divided into divisions to each of which is allotted a fixed number of class hours. The student is given special assignments at the beginning of each division, and four hours throughout the year are provided for written tests to be given at such time as the teacher may deem advisable. This is in addition to the final examination which all students must pass at the close of the year.

The course begins with a general discussion of the physical characteristics of the country and its primitive inhabitants to which two hours are allowed. The Pre-Cortez period is then taken up in twenty-eight recitations. The various racial groups and the degree of development and civilization attained by each before the conquest are discussed in detail, such as the Mayas, the Toltecs, the Nahuas, and the Aztecs. The empire of Montezuma, its organization, its culture, its religion, and the land system developed up to that time are presented in detail, giving the student a good general idea of native culture before the conquest.

The third division is the discovery, conquest, and exploration, to which ten recitation periods are allotted. This carries the narrative from the discovery of America by Columbus to the establishment

of the first viceroyalty in New Spain in 1535, laying special emphasis on the conquest, the character of Cortez and his companions, and the policy adopted towards the natives in the early years. In closing the teacher summarizes the benefits and evils of the conquest, the extent of the spread of Christianity among the natives, and the effect of the new religion upon the life and customs of the Indians.

The same number of recitations are allowed to the colonial period that covers the years from 1535 to the outbreak of the War of Independence in 1810. The student is acquainted with the viceregal administration and the political divisions of New Spain. The development of the country under Spain's rule is then taken up, discussing the progress from century to century, pointing out the most important political events, the social, economic and cultural advance made, and the growing grievances of the colony against Spain. The short sighted commercial policy of the mother country, the unfair discrimination against creoles and mestizos, and the growing abuse of officials are carefully analyzed and discussed that the student may have a better understanding of the movement that culminated in Mexico's independence.

Ten more recitations carry the student through the War of Independence from 1810 to 1821, closing this division with the Treaty of Cordoba that closed the war and gave Mexico its independence. More in detail the student is acquainted with the economic, social and political conditions that prompted the movement for independence, the leaders of the struggle, their plans and ideals, their actual accomplishments, and the character of such men as Hidalgo, Morelos, Guerrero, and Iturbide. The influence of the French philosophers and the effect of the American Revolution on the leaders of Mexican independence is pointed out to the student.

With the establishment of the first Empire of Iturbide immediately after independence was attained begins the modern period which carries the student in twenty recitations from 1821 to 1910. The short-lived empire of Iturbide is followed by the establishment of the first federal republic of 1824, Santa Anna makes his entry, liberalism and centralism struggle for supremacy, Texas is lost, the Mexican War follows, and in 1857 the country is torn by civil war. The Guerra de Reforma is discussed in detail as to its causes and the principles at stake, then comes the period of French Intervention. Briefly the ill-starred Maximilian and his short-lived empire are treated in summary fashion and the characters of Juárez and the unfortunate emperor are contrasted. A pause is made at this point to appraise impartially the progress of Mexico through the endless civil and foreign wars before the reestablishment of peace and the consti-

tutional government of Lerdo de Tejada. With the beginning of the Diaz administration the problems of reconstruction and industrial development are analyzed and the division closes with a summary of the Diaz administration of thirty-three years.

The contemporary period is covered in five lectures, beginning with the Revolution of 1910 to our present day. The Diaz administration is briefly summarized pointing out the accumulation of social, economic and political grievances that made the outbreak of 1910 inevitable. The immediate causes of the Revolution are then discussed and the progress of the struggle is rapidly traced through Madero to Carranza, Obregón, and Calles, closing with a summary of its ideals and the accomplishments up to the present.

It is only natural that this course should be more thorough and much better taught than the General History Course. Its scope is briefer, the natural interest of the teacher and student in the subject make it much more alive, and the sources and parallel readings are more easily obtained.

Three textbooks are suggested for use by the teacher: Toro, *Historia Patria*, three volumes; Pérez Verdía, *Historia de México*, one volume; and Nicolás León, *Historia de México*. Until very recently Pérez Verdía was the most commonly used and is still preferred by many teachers. Toro's history is the more recently written, but a careful reading of it shows that in spite of its greater length, the subject matter is poorly organized. Furthermore, a serious objection to the work is the obvious bias against the Church. Nicolás León's history has little to recommend it, because in the main it is a replica of the work of Pérez Verdía, which in the opinion of the writer remains still the best and only one volume history of Mexico.

But this paper has grown longer than was anticipated. The organization of the secondary schools of Mexico has been briefly outlined, and the character of their teaching staff, the type of student that attends them, and the avowed purposes of these schools summarized in order that the outlines of the two history courses that form the real subject of this paper may be better understood in relation to the whole. No comments or opinions as to the superiority or inferiority, or as to the merits or demerits of the method used or the courses offered in Mexico have been expressed, leaving the reader to form his own opinion. The writer hopes that in the brief presentation of this interesting subject he has not omitted any of the essential details for such a purpose. In closing, a selected bibliography of the principal references used in the teaching of the course on the History of Mexico is appended that it may be omitted in the reading of this paper, which has already gone beyond the limits originally set for it.

Select List of References Used in the Course on the History of Mexico

Jose G. Aguilera, *Sinopsis de Geología Mexicana*.
 Bernal Diaz del Castillo, *Historia verdadera de la Conquista de la Nueva España*.
 Hernán Cortez, *Cuatro Cartas de Relación*.
 Gomara, *Historia de la Conquista*.
 Orozco y Berra, *Historia antigua y de la Conquista de México*.
 Servando Teresa de Mier, *Historia de la revolución de la Nueva España*.
 Lorenzo de Zavala, *Ensayo histórico de las revoluciones en México*.
 Carlos María Bustamante, *Cuadros históricos de la Revolución Mexicana*.
 Lucas Alaman, *Disertaciones. Historia de México*.
 J. M. L. Mora, *México y sus revoluciones*.
 Spencer, *Los antiguos mexicanos*.
 Genaro García y Carlos Pereyra, *Nuevos documentos inéditos o muy raros para la historia de México* (36 volumes).
 A. Rivera, *El Virreinato*.
 Jose Fernando Ramirez, *Obras*.

Vicenta Rivapalacio, *México a través de los siglos*.
 Morley, *Expedición de Yucatán*.
 Genaro García, *Caracter de la conquista española*.
El clero de México durante la dominación española.
El clero de México durante la guerra de independencia.
 Don Juan de Palafox y Mendoza.
 Juárez.
 Leona Vicario.
 Porfirio Díaz, *Su niñez y juventud*.
 Plan de independencia de la Nueva España en 1808.
 González Obregón, *Las Calles de México*.
 D. Guillen de Lampart, *la inquisición y la independencia en el siglo XVII*.
Epoca colonial.
México viejo y anecdótico.
Los precursores de la independencia mexicana en el siglo XVI.
 Ramón Mena, *Dos notables monumentos*.
La ciencia arqueológica en México.
Problema indigena en Chiapas.

An Experiment in the History Laboratory

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Within the past two years the social science department in our school has experimented with courses in world, modern, and American history in order to discover better methods of instructing the ever-increasing number of pupils who enter the department for "points." It has, therefore, been necessary to get farther away from the old test-book, question-answer assignments and to make use of what we call a modified form of the Dalton plan. This involves a use of the text as one of our many reference books, and of definitely assigned mimeographed questions and materials. We have had to remind ourselves constantly that it is necessary to teach from the viewpoint and interest of the pupil, and not to formulate a plan book which is easiest for the instructor; that the word "interest" should be substituted for "credit." Both by the introduction and application of these new methods, we have been able to reduce our uninterested percentage about 40 per cent.

At the beginning of the experiment outlines in modern, American, and world history were presented to each member of the department, along with definite suggestions for a revamping of the courses, as well as the objectives to be obtained. The following special recommendations were made for the laboratory experiment:

1. Modern history should start with the Rise of Democracy in England and France. The history of these two nations is responsible for the struggle of other countries for a more liberal govern-

ment; they form the basis for the Rise of Nationalism.

2. After a study of France and England, as a unit, to 1914, it is recommended that current events be the basis upon which the rest of the course is conducted. This can apply both to modern and to world history. It will mean that history will be taught backwards, but the results will be worth while. *Instructions.* Divide the notebook into four sections: Democracy, Nationalism, World War, and Post-War. Suppose there appears in the newspaper an item that "India Will Not Accept Dominion Status." What will be the process of further instruction?

a. Teacher should assign British plans for Dominion Status. Material from library or clippings.

b. Why will Gandhi not accept the Irwin proposals? Assign materials.

c. Why shouldn't India be granted independence? Answer can be supplied from a study of the political, social, and economic background. Class may be divided up into sections or committees and present the question in the form of an informal debate. Conclusions reached should be those of the pupil and not of the teacher. Materials must be assigned far enough in advance so that the problem will be well understood.

d. Background — Franco-British strife of eighteenth century. English acquisition and set-

tlement. Nineteenth century struggles between the British and the Indians.

3. As the rest of the course will be conducted by means of current events it is suggested that a majority of the class decide, from the possible countries to be selected, what modern phase of history they would be most interested in continuing.

4. Having selected the subject for the next project, the instructor should assign the reading from the text before any mimeographed questions are passed out. This reading may be completed in the laboratory or given as a home assignment. Pages to be covered should be generally discussed in order that the pupil may have an idea of what to emphasize.

5. Next, assign from the mimeographed sheet, the material to be covered within a certain time limit. Questions should be easy enough for the average grade student, with optional or more difficult ones for the more brilliant.

6. It is suggested that clippings, cartoons, and pictures collected by the pupils and teachers be filed for future use. If cartoons or articles offered present only one side of the story, assign material in order that the other may be known and appreciated.

7. In order to have a successful laboratory, it is suggested that there be at least two or three full periods of the week devoted to reading material on the assignment and answering questions in the notebook. A well supervised period should encourage thinking, and should definitely discourage the copying of ideas from the reference books. It should also allow pupils to seek aid from the instructor whenever questions are at all puzzling. Frequent conversation for exchange of ideas should be tolerated, granted that there are limits to this type of aid. A well supervised period will, moreover, acquaint the teacher with false impressions which the pupil may be acquiring, and which can be corrected during the laboratory period. This supervision, along with the recitation and frequent conferences, will lessen the amount of notebook correcting.

8. Whenever the project is partially or wholly completed there should be a discussion on the general and most important points. Remember, history interest can be killed by the memorization of dates, battles, names of kings and queens, and events or facts which have no apparent linking with the course.

9. Completion of the topic will be followed by a quiz or examination. Questions of an objective type, as well as thought provoking, should be utilized.

10. Inasmuch as Russia, China, India, Germany, Italy, France, Poland, Turkey, and the Latin-American countries form a vast majority of the

international news items, their importance cannot be over-stressed. The causes of the World War and post-war peace treaties will conclude the last few weeks of study. Knowledge of the elements of democracy, bolshevism, fascism, and communism, with its advantages and disadvantages to society, should be carefully scrutinized. The teacher should be careful not to express his own opinion in such a way that a wrong impression may be obtained and quoted at home.

11. Do not overlook the importance of any economic or scientific advancement which may be developed within the era of any project. Too much emphasis on literature should be avoided. The English department will supply this, and we will stress the background. Biographies, geography, and their connection with history should not be overlooked, however.

12. Extra-credit work should be encouraged. Suggestions for this may include historical fiction, biographies, vocational history, essays, or illustrations.

In order to discover what the results of the experiment may have been, one teacher in the department continued to use the old method of text-book, question-answer, while two of us carried out the above suggestions. At the end of the semester the two who had experimented with the new method asked two questions of the students in American and modern European history and tabulated the results. No names were attached to the slips of paper handed out in order that we might obtain their frank opinions. It should be kept in mind that definitions of the old and new methods were clearly given, and that all had been subjects of both methods.

1. Do you prefer the past or present system of instruction, although the newer one requires more work and thought?

Out of 177 answering, the results were: Past: 29; Present: 148.

In analyzing the twenty-nine choosing "past" we found that eleven were from the mechanic arts course, and admitted that the text-book required less work. The remainder had either not found themselves, or were not interested.

To test the results further, a second question was asked of the same groups.

2. Are you taking the course for "credit" with no "interest," or are you finding an "interest" although having intended to take it for "points"? Credit: 36; Interest: 141.

Our attention is now turned to the results in two classes in world history, totaling forty-eight, containing students of average I.Q. These classes used the text-book, question-answer method.

Here the above second question was asked and the following results noted: Credit: 19; Interest: 29.

It was, therefore, fairly accurately concluded that since the old method of teaching showed 38 per cent of the pupils still pursuing the subject for "points," as against 22 per cent under the newer system, that the experiment had and would justify itself, and should be carried to greater heights the following year. More interest in history has been shown not only by an increased enrollment in the world and modern history classes, but there is also keener competition among these students to answer all the required and optional questions, and to do,

as well as to learn, all there is to know about the subject.

This semi-Dalton plan has not only the advantage of encouraging individual thought and expression, but it has allowed the student to do what he can, well, and in many cases has brought out, through illustrated material, an artistic bent. It has shown, through extra-credit assignments, what the interest of the pupil may be. It has brought not only enthusiasm to the student, but to the instructor. And, finally, it has proved that history may be less of a grind and more of a pleasure through laboratory assignments which are more optional and less compulsory.

Problems and Methods in the Teaching of Economics and Sociology in the High School*

By O. S. FLICK

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The subject of the present discussion is, it seems to me, particularly appropriate at this time. With a world that has been impoverished by war, and is sick unto death with economic ills for which no one seems able to prescribe a remedy, with a society throughout the world that is reëxamining the bases of its faith in many of its institutions upon which most of its members had until recently come to look as traditional, with a social order which in many places is being sorely racked if not completely torn down, with crime rampant in our own country, and with many thoughtful men asking themselves, "What is my true relation to my fellow men?"—with all these conditions existing there is no wonder that educational leaders are asking everywhere "What can education do?" Therefore, I submit, there are problems of transcendent importance to be solved in the teaching of Economics and Sociology. Some of these perhaps I may be able to indicate, though toward their solution I shall be content with but a modest contribution.

Of the making of curricula in the social sciences there is no end. We have had committees of national scope and reputation working on the problem of the social studies and submitting recommendations for the schools to follow—committees of the American

Historical Association, of the American Political Science Association, and of the National Education Association, to mention only a few. We have had committees of states who strove by their recommendations to guide social science teaching into channels which they conceived of as wise. We have had city committees and committees of small towns who have worked out schemes of instruction which seemed to them to be valid means of attaining the preconceived ends.

All this is evidence that instruction in the social sciences is in a state of constant change. No one program of action meets the approval of all. Aims vary. There is not sufficiently close agreement on either proximate or ultimate objectives. Methods of instruction differ so that even where ends are the same the means are often at wide variance. Those upon whom the responsibility for social study curriculum making rests are constantly seeking for some new approach, some new method, some new emphasis which shall more adequately realize what they have hopes of realizing in social science instruction.

All this is to be expected in a field of studies as wide as human nature. The human mind has many reactions to environment. It is subject to emotions and to prejudices, as well as to intellect. What an individual will do under a given set of circumstances it is impossible to predict no matter how well we

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know what the vast majority of people would do under the same circumstances. In addition to these things conditions are changing. Social institutions are in a constantly evolving state. A body of subject matter which is adequate at one time becomes entirely obsolete at a later time. Revision of curricula are thus necessary at comparatively short intervals in order to keep the substance upon which instruction is based responsive to contemporary trends and capable of functioning in new situations. Curriculum makers should set their faces toward the future, for nothing is surer than that ours is an evolving civilization in which that which is, speedily becomes that which was, and that which we look forward to frequently becomes the accomplished fact.

Since these things are true, I prefer in the subject that is assigned to me—Problems and Methods in the Teaching of Economics and Sociology in the Secondary School—to approach these problems in the light of the broader subject, the problems and methods in the teaching of the social studies in the secondary school. In this way, I believe, may be developed a system of social science instruction which shall embrace all the constituent elements which make up the social studies and shall help to solve the problems of each by fitting them into a comprehensive scheme. I have set for myself the following problems for consideration: 1. What is the ultimate purpose of the study? 2. What content of material will most likely attain this purpose? 3. What methods of approach or presentation are best for boys and girls of high school age? 4. When should the material be introduced and how long continued?

ULTIMATE PURPOSE

The ultimate purpose of a study of the social sciences is found expressed as one of the seven cardinal principles of secondary education, that of preparation for citizenship. This does not get us very far into the subject unless our concept of citizenship is broad enough to include membership in any and all human associations. In order to maintain his state of civilization, man forms various groups through which to carry on his necessary work. These groups may be economic, political, or social, but they are all alike in the respect that they are formed of groups of individuals who hope by the group method to carry on necessary functions. The beginning of our study is man with wants to be satisfied; the end is man with satisfied wants. Doubtless one of the earliest forces drawing men together into these groups was the need of more adequate protection. This protection was supplied very early by the social group called the family. The special need of protection of the young made the family one of the earliest forms of social groupings to ap-

pear. The family afforded a better method, also, for the acquisition of the material necessities of life, and it always constituted and still constitutes a training ground of the young in social relationships. Shall we call the family then a political, an economic, or a social unit in its origin? It was all of these in one and the member was a citizen of the family in the broadest sense, having obligations to assist in protection which is primarily political, in getting a living which is primarily economic, and in the harmonious working of its parts which is primarily social. There is no distinct political man, no distinct economic man, distinct social man. For the sake of systematizing our knowledge, we have taken these aspects of the same thing apart. It seems clear that what we need in high school, except possibly in the last year of the senior high school, is a synthesis of these aspects of human life into a unified whole and the leaving of analysis almost wholly for higher education to carry out.

As time passed the family could no longer carry on all the functions necessary to the advancing well-being of its members and it began to form with other families or other individuals larger social groups for somewhat specific purposes. Protection was still a prominent function. Since this was necessary to all, and strength lay in numbers the protection group was built on the basis of compulsory membership—that is it was a political unit, a city unit as the name indicates because the city was the unit of protection. Other units not with compulsory membership grew up for economic purposes, voluntary in their membership because many such units could just as well exist as one. In a similar way so-called social groups arose built on the voluntary principle and fulfilling needs which neither political nor economic groups could meet.

Thus the individual finds himself a member of many groups; some large and some small, some in which membership is compulsory and some in which membership is voluntary, some serving mighty ends and some serving petty ends. All, however, are important to the individual because he sees in them the means of attaining otherwise unattainable objectives which he conceives of as desirable. It is a thesis of this discussion that it is the business of education to teach proper attitudes toward all these groups in which the individual is a member. This is a progressive and changing thing for the boundary lines of groups are constantly shifting. When religious worship was regulated by law as it long was, religion was a political affair. It is now social. Transporting parcels was, previous to 1913 in the United States, an economic matter only, while now it is political or more accurately it is an economic function discharged by a political group. A great deal of agitation for social and economic

reform turns upon the question as to what are properly private and what public functions. Neal Billings in his investigation of generalizations basic to the social studies curriculum finds that where individual values and social values coincide the supply of services by organized industry can be left to private enterprise; where they do not coincide the state or some public body must act.

We have said that social science instruction should strive to foster right attitudes toward all social relationships with which a normal person comes into contact. This is citizenship instruction in its broadest sense and includes, in some form at least, history, political science, economics, and sociology. What are right attitudes? A right attitude is one of understanding of and respect for those relationships which all of us inherit from the past by being born into them. A goal of social studies teaching should be that, in imparting such information as will lead to understanding and respect, the teacher may implant in the student at the same time a sense of responsibility for improvement.

The starting point must be the study of the social institution as it now exists. This institution is doubtless not perfect. Its imperfection may, indeed, be very conspicuous. The fact, however, that the institution exists is something to commend it, for it has been slowly shaped by the experience of man in his struggle for new arrangements by which to satisfy his needs. Every institution that has remained for any length of time is in a sense a masterpiece for it has succeeded in meeting a need. That it may be inadequate for the future is another matter—a problem for the present generation to solve. The knowledge that the institution is meeting a need, however imperfectly, but the best that people know, should command respect for it in the mind of any normal person. Social progress demands readjustments. Undoubtedly no system once established can last forever. But before the new is embraced one must know or be convinced that it is an improvement over the old and not a thing of attractive exterior but of a rotten heart.

When a student or other person comes to see that this is true, he gains a new respect for the social ideal or institution. He becomes socially minded. He sees the paramount importance of the common good. More than this, he sees that in the common good is wrapped up his goods. This is the highest form of social understanding for it envisages the unity of interest of the member and his group. As long as I think my interest is something entirely distinct and apart from the interests of others, I will go my way, often to the detriment of society. If, however, I can be made to see, or I myself come to see, that my interest is served best when it is largely merged with the group's inter-

ests, I become socially minded and willing to cooperate, not only for the public in general, but also for myself.

Out of respect for social institutions should come obedience to social requirements; but that is not all. In a free government understanding of social institutions and a respect for them should produce a desire to be of service in improving them. Even if at a given time no improvement seemed necessary, social advancement will necessitate a change. Therefore eternal vigilance is necessary to keep the institutions of social life responsive to the day-to-day needs of a virile population. In this work all must be enlisted. No one person alone can do it. Those who respect the present methods because they conceive them to represent the best thought of society, should find expression for this respect in willingness to do all in their power to make corrections and changes wherever and whenever these seem to be advisable.

In this connection it seems appropriate to say that in a world of change, we should sometimes consider the things that are constant. There are qualities of social life that seem never to grow old. Those homely virtues of courage and steadfastness, of human sympathy and understanding, of desire to serve and pride of progress, are as valid now as they ever were. Somewhere in our social teaching there should be a place for holding up high ideals in all these qualities fundamental to a worthy participation in group relationships.

It is a fair query whether our admittedly phenomenal material and mechanical development has not gone on far enough for the present, and our ends would be better served by increased attention to those intangible qualities of mind and character by which alone worthy social life is possible.

Thus we come back to the three goals of social teaching; understanding, respect, and responsibility. Understanding without respect is cynicism; respect without understanding is undemocratic; and understanding and respect without a sense of responsibility for improvement is stagnation. Only by a combination of all three can there be progressive readjustment of the mind of the individual to the ever-changing forms and relationships of modern society. In this way only can society hope to eliminate the apathetic citizen who lacks responsibility, the ignorant citizen who lacks understanding, and the law-breaker who lacks respect—the three chief enemies of all free society.

I have tried to indicate what the ultimate purpose of the study of economics and sociology as well as all the social studies should be—that it is the acquisition by the student of knowing, wholesome, and coöperative attitudes toward all his group relationships, in other words what we call

good citizenship, political, social, or economic. Our next duty is to examine the problem—What content of material will most likely attain this purpose?

THE MATERIAL CONTENT OF THE COURSE

It seems evident that if our aim in social studies teaching is the acquisition of information taught in such a way as to result in wholesome social attitudes of various kinds, we must draw our materials from all the fields of the social studies. We are preparing for worthy human life. Let us then within the social field tap as many aspects of that life as possible. We live in a world of almost infinite complexity of human relationships. From the simple life of our ancestors of two milleniums or so ago we have advanced from one complication to another in our efforts to make man more free and more happy and more prosperous until our social machine has become almost unintelligible in its construction and well nigh impossible of wise direction. Questions of property rights, of corporate interrelationships, of wage determination, of public utility regulation, of capital and credit, of taxation, of bureaucratic control of government, of poverty and relief, of crime and penology, of divorce, delinquency, and probation, and of agricultural production—all these and many more press for answer and are left unsolved only at the peril of society.

Moreover the questions are closely interrelated. Unemployment leads to poverty, poverty leads to vice or crime, divorce leads to child delinquency, greater participation of government in business leads to bureaucracy, low wages leads to bankruptcy of business, easy credit leads to inflation, tight money slows progress. It seems as if man has created a Frankenstein which may destroy him or, to vary the figure, that he is carried along on a great machine which he has no power to stop and slight power to direct.

Now with all this we live in a land of universal suffrage. We have pinned our faith to the principle that in the long run the common man and woman will heed the right counsel and follow the wisest leaders. This faith cannot be justified in an ignorant population. Neither can we expect the common man or woman even with all the education we can ever give the masses to be able to pass judgment on public questions which baffle those versed in the matters at issue and far above the average in ability to think in complicated terms. Failing in this we must fall back on the proposition that our social knowledge taught in the schools shall enable the student to do two things:

1. To possess such a knowledge of fundamental social facts that the choice of one of sev-

eral courses of action may be intelligently made without the consideration of details.

2. To be willing to leave matters which require expert knowledge to those trained technically in such things.

It is not necessary that everybody be acquainted, for instance, with the intricacies of taxation, but it is necessary that some of the fundamentals of the whole matter be widely known, such as, that ability to pay and benefits received are two bases of the distribution of the tax burden and that in large part final judgment on the justice of any tax must rest on the question of who ultimately pays it. It is an obligation of leadership in a democracy that leaders shall have or shall obtain expert opinion on technical questions and that they shall have the power and the willingness to make the fundamental distinction between two proposed courses of action so clear that the masses can choose wisely between them. If this plan is not successful, democracy in government becomes a failure. No less a burden than the preparation of the masses to do this rests upon the schools of America.

A proper study of history, civics, government, economics, and sociology or any other wise named subject which deals with similar content should be able to impart this knowledge. History as now taught is largely a study of the evolution of human institutions with emphasis upon cause and effect. It helps to "sell" the present social order to the student by showing him how it arose and by giving him the reasons for its development to its present form. It thus helps to do what was spoken of a few minutes ago, to give the student such an appreciation of our institutions as shall beget in his mind respect for them and a desire to improve them. My first acquaintance with civics years ago was to memorize the Constitution of the United States, section by section, and article by article. Now there are civics courses which are a mixture of all the social studies. Economics and sociology must be taught in some form else these great and important fields will be neglected with consequent gaps in the intellectual equipment of the citizen.

HOW TO PRESENT ECONOMICS OR SOCIOLOGY

We come now to our third problem—what methods of approach or presentation are best for boys and girls of high school age? I would urge under this head that we begin with man's wants and proceed to the means by which those wants are satisfied. That is, proceed from need to agency, from function to institution. Man needs food, clothing and shelter as a minimum and if he is to live a civilized life he must have efficient methods of production, protection against the lawless and against external enemies; he must have efficient transpor-

tation agencies, systematic methods of training the youth, opportunity for religious expression, and the satisfaction of many wants for material things. Out of these wants come the means society has evolved to satisfy the wants. If boys and girls are taught that there is a need and that this and that are society's agencies to fulfill the need, a wholesome attitude is built up and detailed information becomes useful. In doing these things divisions of subject matter need not be branded as economics or sociology but merely as social problems which press for solution.

This method becomes in practice the problem method of instruction. Children are intrigued by problems to solve, by intellectual obstacles to surmount. The presentation of a problem which to some extent baffles the mind calls out constructive thinking of the most useful kind for it is precisely the kind that citizens must do as they come into contact with real citizenship situations. It is much better that a student should get his first lessons in rent from an attempt to explain why downtown property is worth more than suburban than that he should approach the question from a reading of Ricardo, and it would be better that a student's first steps in an understanding of social control come from observing the effects of custom, public opinion, education, or religion upon human conduct than that he should begin with the pages of Ross. This method leads to an appreciation of the need first and makes the means of fulfilling the need the more vital when it is finally learned.

Next there is need for a largely non-technical treatment except possibly in the last year of the senior high school. We should not go too far in mere theory. I doubt the efficacy of introducing to high school students such concepts as the economists have in marginal productivity, marginal utility, or the Malthusian Doctrine. If the student's ideas of wages, value, and population which he takes out of the classroom are to depend on a clear conception of such terms as these, there is grave doubt that the knowledge will ever really amount to much. Let him work on more objective phenomena and his education will help him when he confronts actual life situations. Society is the laboratory of the student of the social studies. Let him look around, weigh and consider what he sees, receive help in explaining what is hidden and a body of information which will enable him to think intelligently about social situations is sure to be acquired.

WHEN TO INTRODUCE THE MATERIAL

It remains to consider the last problem—When should the material be introduced and how long continued? When one considers that many students drop out of school soon after the age of compulsory

attendance, it is evident that economic and social study in some form should begin early. Although in the grades up to the seventh there may be some economic and social matter taken up, it cannot be said to be very extensive before the junior high school is reached. Here it should be found, but it should square with the accepted functions of the junior high school. The junior high school has for its purpose the making of the transition from the elementary to the secondary school more easy and natural by a gradual differentiation of subject matter, and wide range of study, curricular and extra curricular. Since this is true it seems best that the beginnings of social knowledge brought from the elementary school should be added to by social and economic aspects of American history and by group and occupational civics. The time when history was nothing more than political and military chronology has fortunately passed. Economic and social history now has an accepted place. American history taught with proper emphasis upon economic and social changes is capable of giving the junior high school student some considerable insight into social and economic phenomena though of course with no thought of a separate course. This study might well include consideration of the changes in the methods of industry, transportation and commerce, and the social effects which flow therefrom. Group civics should be essentially introductory social science, with emphasis upon fundamental phases of group life. In fact throughout the junior high school the fields of the social studies are often largely merged to form the so-called fusion course. This period carries the main stream of social development to be broken up somewhat into its constituent elements in the senior high school and still more in the college or university.

In the senior high school history carries a large part of the instruction in economics and sociology, since our textbooks emphasize those aspects of human development. It could hardly be otherwise when history includes such matters as feudalism and slavery, free silver and greenback currency, big business and anti-trust legislation, urban growth and organized labor. Certain other aspects of economics may be taken up in other courses such as in economic or commercial geography and business organization. In the last year of the senior high school there may well be a half year or a year of economics and sociology as a formal course. This may review, supplement, integrate, and redirect, in the economic and social thinking of the student, the information of earlier courses for citizenship or for advanced work in college; but it would be a great mistake to suppose that because the high school course of study lists no course called economics or sociology up to the last year, there has

been no instruction in those lines. Let me recapitulate:

1. The ultimate purpose of the study of economics and sociology in the high school is equipment for the proper discharge of the duties of citizenship using that term in its broadest sense.
2. The materials most likely to attain this purpose are those taken from all the social science fields.
3. The methods of approach or presentation best for boys and girls of high school age are the selection of materials from the students' surroundings and under their vision, non-technically treated, largely in problem form.
4. Economic and sociological study should constitute a prominent part of the social studies and these studies should proceed throughout the high school period and be pursued by a given student approximately five of the six years of the junior and senior high school period.

riod. A formal course in economics or sociology should not come earlier than the eleventh year.

I would like to say in closing that by assuming as I have the very close relation of economics and sociology to the other social studies in the high school, I do not desire to minimize their importance. The values of economics in throwing light upon so many of our problems of the present day in the fields of conservation of resources, and of capital, labor, and management; and of sociology in pointing the way to better things in our social make-up and above all in giving the student the social or group viewpoint—these values, I say, are among the very highest with which education deals. I would urge, however, the correctness of the idea that what we are interested in in high school is not any economic or sociological discipline as such, but an integrated body of social knowledge that shall illuminate the paths of our students and shall speed the day of the more perfect democracy of tomorrow.

A Junior High School Classroom Project in Civic Attitudes and Conduct

By JOHN P. DIX

Northeast Junior High School, Kansas City, Missouri

PURPOSING AS THE FIRST STEP OF THE PROJECT

The very first day of school was a big factor in the approach and attack of the project—"to reveal higher activities and make them both desired, and to an extent, possible." A teacher should take advantage of the great opportunity offered to get a good start in the process of developing citizenship muscles, by showing the need for definite goals or ideals. The point was made that teacher and pupils were to be together for twenty weeks, and that there should be some specific objectives toward which everyone could strive, the classes thus achieving bigger things due to set and accepted standards for class and individual.

The need for pupil-devised goals was illustrated and developed. The instructor must be a good salesman, enlisting leaders of the class, encouraging and creating enthusiasm. Pupils should be led to feel that they, with the teacher, are doing the purposing. Purposing is a phase of the project which carries over the entire year. A personal rating card in the Kansas City, Missouri, school system is used twice a year to check for filing all pupils "normal," "above," "below" on such character traits as—

courage, courtesy, dependability, disposition, honesty, initiative, leadership, loyalty, neatness, and perseverance. This procedure aided materially the project in emotionalizing attitude and conduct.

PLANNING THE PROJECT

The planning was largely a matter of the teacher's insight and resourcefulness as the work was developed during the semester. The first assignment of the year was the writing of ten goals which pupils felt ought to be included as standards or ideals for the class and individuals. The next step in the planning was appointing volunteer committees to select, assemble, and recommend chosen material from assigned work. The members of the class should discuss character conduct goals, select and word some definite aims, and post these standards for emphasis and measurement. The teacher must refrain from nagging or "harping" on ideals set. A periodic inventory (the writer finds that a brief comment on five weeks' test is excellent) is effective. The teacher must plan to take every opportunity to illustrate his teaching in terms of ideals or class standards, but one should not overemphasize by *talking*. *Doing*

is the principal consideration. Planning ought to be flexible and incidental to the act of teaching; variation occurs with the respective groups and individuals. It goes without saying, that the teacher should be a citizen himself: *definite, decisive, businesslike, and vital*—one who begins where the members of the class are and takes the pupils where he wants them to be.

Although the teacher will find much of the development of "*citizenship muscles*" will be accomplished by unplanned means, the most definite and effective method to cause individuals and groups to want to achieve results as regards facts, participation, and inspiration to better civic attitude and conduct is to *plan before*. The writer has described above actual planning before the executing of what has now been accomplished. In character education, a teacher must plan consideration of the three laws of learning: readiness, exercise, effect or satisfaction. A pupil should be ready, interested, and motivated to action; he should do, practice, and perform the act, the effect of doing the act should result in success and satisfaction.

THE EXECUTION OF THE PROJECT

The regular textbook and curriculum work were developed, and the goals were discussed incidentally to the teaching or lesson development. The list of definite standards was handed to the instructor by the members of the class. The goals committees met the first week of school; thirty-five pupils came into the room after school to work on the selection of goals, under the guidance of the teacher. The project proved rather difficult as regards elimination and selection of ideals. The instructor took part of the class hour the second week of school to clinch matters; each class accepted preambles, creeds, and goals as their own. Pupils took these standards home and printed them on poster paper so that they might have their ideals permanently before them. A class discussion was very effective at times as a check on theory and practice. Each Civics class was organized, was named, and had a motto.

At the end of the first five weeks' period of school, officers were elected and various committees for current events, clean-up, program, constitution, and poster, were appointed. Each Monday, the president's duty is to lead or designate some pupil to lead the American Creed, Flag Salute, and Class Preamble or Creed. Each five weeks' period, the goals are discussed, and one weak goal is selected by the class to strengthen during the following period. Pupils are often requested to state their opinion relative to the attainment of their standards. A Civics committee may be appointed to be responsible for the rendering of goals and commenting on class and individual progress.

COPIES OF ACTUAL CLASS GOALS

The following material is copied from pupils' written and accepted standards which were posted on attractive heavy paper in respective class sections above blackboard; an opportunity is afforded for artistic posters. The writer found that there is a decided advantage in having the printed words clear and outstanding. Youngsters are proud of little things like striking and beautiful designs and printing. The reader will note that each goal begins with a verb or word of action. Stress is always to be placed on doing, so that ideals really are functional in school and life. Some classes formulated life goals as well as class goals to show relationship.

CIVICS CARPENTERS

Be Square and On the Level

We, the students of this Civics class, in order to form a more perfect class, establish honesty at all times, be courteous to the teacher and fellow students, provide our general knowledge and secure the ability of our fellow students—do ordain and establish these facts for the good of the class.

OUR GOALS

1. Have lessons accurately, promptly, and honestly prepared.
2. Practice coöperation and participation in all class and school activities.
3. Respect and obey all rules and regulations of the school.
4. Be courteous to all and respect the rights of others.
5. Develop habits of neatness, dependability, study, honesty, self-control, and regular attendance.

CIVICS CRYSTALS

We Are Always On the Watch

We, the pupils of the fifth hour Civics class, hereby, pledge ourselves to live up to the standards and rules of our Constitution.

GOALS

1. Come to class ready to work.
2. Be a good sport.
3. Be self-reliant.
4. Be courteous to all.
5. Respect property of others.
6. Participate in recitation.
7. Have self-control.
8. Keep room in good order.

CIVIC RESERVES

We're Ready for Anything

We, the pupils of the sixth hour Civics class, in order to form a more perfect class agree to respect these goals or laws.

GOALS

1. Be honest.
2. Respect teacher.
3. Be courteous.
4. Take part in lesson.
5. Be neat in all work.
6. Treat all pupils as you want them to treat you.

CIVICS BUBBLES

We Come to the Top

CREED

We, the students of the seventh hour class in order that we may form a more perfect class, have established these goals so that the class, our lives, and those who are around us, may be bettered by them.

CLASS GOALS

1. Be a good follower if you can't be a leader.
2. Respect teachers and fellow students.
3. Work to the best of your ability.
4. Have all work neat and on time.
5. Coöperate in all class activities.

LIFE GOALS

1. Be honest.
2. Coöperate in everything, everywhere.
3. Be prompt at all times.
4. Be courteous to everyone.
5. Respect yourself and others.

COPIES OF ACTUAL INDIVIDUAL COMMENTS
AND IDEALS

The responsibility for class attitude, conduct, and achievement is placed in the individuals and classes themselves; the pupils take the matter of standards seriously. Weak individual and group goals are strengthened in the light of specific objectives, written and accepted by the pupils, under teacher guidance. The writer believes that follow-up and check-up are essential in the achievement of better attitudes which carry over into practice. Check-up questions requested comments as to discussing goals' achievements, suggesting items for class improvement, and describing needs for individual development. The reader can gain an idea of the method used to develop some objective pupil measurement of standards by a sampling of comments written on actual five weeks' tests and special assignments. The material listed below is selected from actual writing of about an equal number of boys and girls, pupils in the writer's classes (1931-32).

We have set our goals. We shall set them again this five weeks. We have set our goals and followed them in a generally good manner. I, as a student, think I have lived up to a standard. I think we should all live up to what we as a class have adopted. Our goals if we lived up to them we would be a standard person.

I think the goals and preamble were very successful, without them we would have nothing to stand on.

Myself, I have tried my best to live up to the goals but of course there are certain points I have failed to reach.

I think that most of the goals are good and that we have done better since we put up the goals. Specially in having work prepared and in taking part in class discussion. I like Civics lots better with the present method than ever before.

I think the idea of goals is a great success. In this class I think almost all of the class have tried to live up to the goals and the idea of the goal. The goals have kept us busy and gave us a chance to get ahead.

I think the class has improved greatly the last five weeks. The committees have done more and so has each individual. I think if we keep on improving we will have a lot more success in life. We have lived up to our goals of honesty, kindness, and taken part.

I believe the system of having goals has been carried through with a measure of success in our class. As a whole, we have a common interest at hand to work for, as individuals, each of us has something to look toward as a standard.

I think these goals have helped our class greatly. They have really obeyed the laws and rules and look up to the goals. These goals have helped me greatly. They have been something to look up to and follow. Previously we did not have such things as goals.

One goal that I have observed as much as any is "be honest." That is always the best. It only takes a little "to be courteous" and means so much to the other fellow. After all it is most of life to help others for in doing so we are made happy. We must "be neat" which does not mean elaborate but tidy and keep things in perfect order. If we keep these goals in mind they can not help but make us better citizens and fit us better for our part in life.

I believe in our school to fit us for life. Our life is one big problem but full of happiness if we make it that way. Without our school life we could not reach the highest aims or have high ideals. They should be inseparable for without school our lives would be almost in vain at least it would not be so happy.

It is impossible for me to think of the value of goals and ideals in terms of money. Their influence on many boys and girls has been priceless. I feel they are partly responsible for some of our worthiest citizens and some of our greatest men. My Creed—I shall strive to become a loyal student to Northeast Junior High School and a respectful citizen of the United States.

If the class selects goals and takes them seriously and agrees to support them, I think they are valuable. But if the class makes and selects goals as a matter of form and not of value, I think they are worthless. I think this would make a good creed: "I am only one—but still I am one. I cannot do everything, but still I can do something. And because I cannot do everything, I will not refuse to do the something I can do."

CONCLUSIONS ON THE PUPILS' PATTERNS
OF CONDUCT

The writer has included a very few pupils' actual comments. Boys and girls of the junior high school

age are frank, and a teacher must become used to this fact. If teacher and pupil check-up on weak points in this candid manner, good results will follow. Factual achievement and reflective thinking should be high because the pupils feel the worth of the subject; attitude and conduct ought to be very good because standards are objective and accepted by the class. Public or *pupil opinion* is the strongest control of citizenship. The disapproval of the group cannot be endured by scholars; the teacher's aim is to see that the group approves the higher activities and disapproves the lower. Class projects, such as constitutions, programs, trials, vocational interviews, naturalization plays, elections, etc. resulted; and good order was maintained.

The patterns of conduct made progress more definite and more understood. Comments revealed a sane, thoughtful, and helpful attitude on the part of boys and girls. Some of the creeds and goals could be better as regards thought and expression. An explanation under each goal is helpful, similar to Scout laws. There is great value in individual creeds and ideals formed by each pupil for himself; this fact is shown in actual comment and development. While the teacher should keep "hands off" as far as possible, it is sometimes better if he guides pretty carefully and thoroughly the project of forming right attitudes and good civic conduct in class, school, and life.

JUDGMENT OF THE PROJECT

This junior high school classroom project in civic attitudes and conduct did not result in 100% success; however the writer does know that there are some very definite wholesome outcomes. Every teacher must strive to teach pupils subject matter, which process should result in better junior citizens now and adult citizens later. The following conclusions show that the project was decidedly worthwhile.

(1) Pupils and teacher have definite, and permanent standards toward which to direct their energies. (2) The pupils feel that these goals and creeds are worthwhile, intrinsic, and attainable. (3) Objective measurement is made more nearly possible. (4) Pupils' actions are emotionalized. (5) Pupil opinion influences behavior rather than preaching by the teacher. The teacher should be the director of the activity and the teaching process. The important point is to cause the pupils to feel that they are doing everything; suggestion and complimentary remarks for progress help greatly in stimulating activity.

One class selected "Participation" as its goal to strengthen for five weeks; another group chose "Work to our best Ability" as its standard to stress during a five weeks' period; a third class empha-

sized "Be interested in Class Work." Each of these groups of pupils improved greatly in the respective character pattern which they decided to follow. These facts were shown by better results on factual material, better committee and recitation participation, and increased interest and enthusiasm.

The attitude, conduct, and achievement of the five classes were high. No device which the writer has ever used was so effective in producing the results sought. Citizenship was stimulated because the individuals and groups felt satisfaction in doing the right thing. One class changed from a poor civic group into one of the best that the teacher has ever taught.

Additional conclusions as to results of the project are pleasing. (1) Scores on achievement tests, Hill's Civic Attitude and Conduct tests and writer's attitude tests were good. (2) Substitute teacher commented on fine spirit of classes. (3) Pupils' responses to committee work, current reading and reporting, paying attention, getting lessons were good. (4) Parents remarked on improvements in pupils' attitudes and citizenship at home. (5) Pupil opinion made for better order, more fair thinking, and the desire to achieve bigger and better things as shown by behavior and way of looking at things presented. (6) Children feel a need for improvement; this fact is shown by individual conference and increased activity; activity in class, school, home, and community. (7) Pride in appearance of room, in personality and in assignments resulted. (8) Increased recognition of individual and class responsibility developed the "citizenship muscles" as indicated by discussion of actual civic problems of Junior High School pupils whose response and behavior were stimulated to greater achievement.

There is a need for a better objective measurement; no absolutely satisfactory or unfailing test has been devised to test character. However, the writer feels that the results of his project have helped to make more definite and effective the desirable higher activities of citizenship.

The March *Atlantic* publishes Wilson Follett's "The Forgotten Man to His President," in which the incoming President is told something of what the average American expects of him and how he happened to vote for him. In this same number Claude M. Feuss writes most ably on "Debunkery and Biography," in which he reviews the contributions of the last quarter of a century to the field of biography and especially of historical biography.

The February number of *Blackwood's Magazine* publishes an admirable account of Jesus College at Cambridge, by A. L. Maycock, in which he undertakes to discover the historical factors back of the architectural distinctions.

The Problem and Value of Collateral Reading

By Z. T. JOHNSON, PH.D.

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The problem of collateral reading is as old as teaching itself. How it can be done, and how to get it done has vexed teachers in every department of school activity. This paper will not show how to get it done, but will reveal one method of how it has been done by one teacher over a period of two years, and some of the probable values accrued to the students thereby.

First, a simple method was set up and followed. In each history class a minimum requirement of 150 pages of reading each week was required for each student. At the end of the week each one had to turn in a bibliography card on which was stated the author, book, and number of pages read in each book. Also, each student had to hand in notes in the form of short quotations taken from the readings. The note had to be properly headed; it had to be one specific idea, or complete thought; and at the bottom of the card the name of the author, book, and exact page from which the quotation was selected had to be cited. On Mondays the teacher took a few minutes at the beginning of the recitation to comment on the notes, ask questions about the books read, and receive general criticism (good and bad) from the students about their readings.

Publicity was given to the relative readings of the class on a bulletin board posted in the history room. Each student had a number, and in his column each week was posted the number of pages he had read. At the end of the quarter the total number of pages for each one was posted. On this same board the test grades of the students were recorded from time to time. Thus every student knew all the time just how he ranked with the rest of the class as to readings and as to test grades.

Records have been kept over a period of two years. During that time there were 38 classes above the freshman level and 6 first year college classes which were checked. In these classes were 934 upper-classmen and 228 freshmen, a total of 1162 students. Of this number 9 per cent made A; 42 per cent B; 38 per cent C; 7 per cent D; and 4 per cent F. The average rankings in the freshman class alone were a little below these. The freshman percentage of A's and B's was smaller; the percentage of C's and D's was larger; and the F group was the same.

The value of collateral reading might have been shown in the relative number of high grades, and then again the teacher might be entirely responsible. So we can only attempt to evaluate these grades with reference to collateral reading by a comparison of the grades with the readings. With the fact in mind that students were required to read only 150 pages a week over an average period of ten weeks (the first and closing weeks of the quarters were not counted) the following tables were worked out. In making the tables the following terms are used: "barely" means 1500 pages, more or less; "one-third" beyond means 2000 pages more or less; "two-thirds" means 2500 pages more or less; and "twice" means 3000 pages or above.

Readings of the F Group

Barely, or below	90%
One-third	10%

Readings of the D group

Barely	62%
One-third	18%
Two-thirds	20%
Twice	None

Readings of the C group

Barely	45%
One-third beyond	23%
Two-thirds beyond	20%
Twice	12%

Readings of the B group

Barely	20%
One-third beyond	25%
Two-thirds beyond	25%
Twice	30%

Readings of the A group

Barely	8%
One-third beyond	6%
Two-thirds beyond	24%
Twice	62%

An interpretation of these tables shows some interesting facts. Those who were consistently high in their readings fell in the A or B groups on their final grades. In the A group were a few scanty readers, but 86 per cent of those who made A

had done much more reading than was required. In the B group 55 per cent had done more reading than was required. In the C group 32 per cent had read more than was required, and the other 68 per cent had stayed around the minimum. In the D group 62 per cent had barely met requirements. The F group showed that 90 per cent had read 1500 pages or less. Consistently steady readers made consistently high grades on their tests and final examinations; while those who did very little reading generally averaged low grades on both tests and final examinations.

While the writer lays no claim to scientific conclusions on this data, there are some things that seem evident from this study, and they are herewith presented for what they are worth.

1. A definite plan of handling the reading problem should be worked out in as simple a form as possible. If the competitive scheme can be used it will help create interest.

2. The reading requirements should not be so high that students cannot find time to do them, but they should require a definite amount of work each day or week.

3. Class discussion of readings and notes will help create interest, and cause students to read more widely and more carefully than they otherwise would.

4. The consistent and wide reader is the more dependable student, and will not only make better grades, but will contribute more to the good of the class as a whole.

5. If the teacher himself is thoroughly acquainted with the books used for collateral reading he can cite them, occasionally relate a story about them or their authors, and direct students to them for specific information. This adds to the interest of the students and shows them the value of studying more than one book in a course.

6. Outside reading enlivens the course; it does away with rote recitation, and brings into the class bits of information which help the students to grasp the important details.

7. There is no "dead class" which has a "live" instructor before it. A teacher dies (from the shoulders up) when he ceases to saturate his mind with a thorough knowledge of his subjects and the material written about them.

Fusion or Confusion?

By PROFESSOR EDGAR C. BYE

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THE QUESTION STATED

To the First Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Professor Howard E. Wilson contributed a critical analysis of "The Fusion of Social Studies in the Junior High School." Professor Wilson's paper, though a very interesting and able one, overlooks the fundamental principle of fusion and, furthermore, by a loose employment of terms which have very definite meanings, may cause confusion in the minds of those who are attempting to appraise the various kinds of combination courses with a view to possible adoption of one of them.

According to Professor Wilson, all fusion courses "seem to have three basic principles in common. First, all seem to be based on the belief that *only* such social science material shall be utilized for teaching purposes as has *direct functional* value in training pupils for the socio-civic activities of current living. Second, such functional material once selected, is organized for teaching purposes in 'natural units of learning'; in lifelike and problematic topics for study. All the courses mentioned above are organized in units or projects without reference to the 'logical arrangement' of traditional subjects. The third principle is a corollary of the first and second, and demands the abolition of 'subject lines' because 'subjects' as such introduce much non-functional material into the curriculum, omit some valuable material, and prevent the organization of the curriculum into 'natural units'."

Having impaled all fusionists on these three principles, Wilson proceeds to show that all three are invalid. The first principle is faulty because a functional curriculum will be "quite as possible within subject fields, as they are currently defined, as it is possible in fusion." The second principle offers no support to the fusionist because, if it be granted that lifelike learning in a unitary organization is best, there is plenty of evidence to show that lifelike, learnable units are as possible and as common in subject-matter courses as in fusion courses. Outlines of the treatment of the industrial revolution in Burnham's *Making of Our Country* and in Rugg's *Introduction to American Civilization*, are offered in evidence. Finally, the third principle is fallacious because, first, "'traditional subject boundaries' do not, or need not, exist between the social studies as those studies are interpreted by scholars of the present generation," and, second, "such distinctions as do exist between subjects today are no more antagonistic to the selection of functional subject-matter (as nearly as that is possible) than the new syntheses of knowledge proposed by the fusionists."

The conclusion is that fusion being the product of the same cultural influences that in the last thirty years have broadened the scope of all the social studies, is, negatively, but a left-wing attack on a formal curriculum which no longer exists, and that it is, positively, but a theory which "is not, in and of itself,

superior to subject organization of materials." In the hands of good teachers it may work well, as almost any organization will, and as a radical antidote for undue conservatism, it has contributed to the possibility of a moderate position.

Let us begin by agreeing with Professor Wilson that functional material can be introduced into subject-matter courses and has been increasing in quantity and quality in such courses during the present century. There is probably no one who favors any of the recent blendings who would claim that his particular course has a monopoly in functionality. The extreme claim of the blenders is that the new organization appears, *a priori*, to be a more hospitable medium for the cultivation of functional bacteria than the subject course. It must be admitted that this has not been proved to be true as yet, but neither has it been proved to be untrue. Re-stated, then, the first principle of "the left wing" would appear to be: Believing with most modern educators that the material selected for teaching purposes should have direct functional value, we advocate an *organization* of the social studies that will, in our opinion, best contribute to the development of socially effective citizens. The emphasis is upon a *functional organization* and the fusionists differ chiefly from the orthodox in insisting upon the importance of *organization* for social objectives as well as the selection of socially valuable materials.

Again, we may agree with our critic that the unitary organization can be and is being used effectively in subject courses as well as in combination courses. And again all that we claim is that, in our opinion, the units in the blended courses are more likely to be units of understanding which will functionally affect life attitudes than are units organized on the basis of the logic of a formal subject. While the unitary organization has characterized all of the new courses, no blender will claim that his course has a monopoly on unit organization.

It is quite true, then, that neither functionality nor unit organization are the characteristics which differentiate the blended courses from the subject courses. It is Professor Wilson who sees these characteristics present in all the new courses and who assumes that they are fundamental principles, claimed by the blenders as exclusively theirs. No such claim has been made, and to show that these characteristics are common to both subject courses and fusion courses is to attack a straw man and prove nothing in regard to the relative value of the two types of organization. The blenders believe that functionality will be promoted by blending, and have used the unit as a convenient tool, but the fundamental principle on which their organization rests is not stated at all in Wilson's article. Before stating this principle, it is necessary to clear up a confusion in terms.

It must first be noted that the third principle, as stated by Wilson, is not a principle at all, but, as the author admits, a corollary to the other principles. Furthermore, the abolition of subject lines may mean the abolition of *all* subject boundaries or it may mean the abolition of *some* subject boundaries. The blenders disagree on this point, and just here is where confu-

sion of terms creeps in. Professor Wilson throughout his study refers to fusion and fusionists, but the kind of organization to which most of his criticism is directed is the unified plan of Harold O. Rugg and his associates. The distinction is more than a matter of quibbling over terms, for there is a real difference between the fusion of Roy W. Hatch and the Rugg plan of unification.

At the inception of his work Mr. Rugg said, "This is not an attempt to merge the established subjects. Rather than that, the procedure we have employed starts with no interest in the established order. It completely disregards current courses. Only one criterion is employed in selecting the content of the courses: its contribution to present living."

With the same functional purpose in view, Mr. Hatch set out not to "invent a new synthesis of knowledge and make it the basis of the entire school curriculum," but to accomplish a much more modest end: namely, the fusion of history, geography, and civics into one course. Mr. Hatch was the originator of the term "fusion" and it can be properly applied only to the type of organization which he has described and demonstrated. A favorite statement of his, often repeated, is: "I am not one who believes in geography, history, or civics for its own sake. As a teacher of youth I do not have the specialist's interest in any of these subjects of study. I want to see the various tributaries, geography, history, civics, each contributing to the main stream. Herein lies the significance of the word 'fusion.' It implies something more than finding points of contact between different fields of knowledge. Geography, history, and civics become not ends in themselves but means to an end. This is what Charles W. Eliot meant when he said: 'Teach groups of subjects in their natural relationships'. For history is meaningless without a stage—geography—to act it on. A stage without action is inane and absurd. And group action, history, without organization—government or civics—is impossible."

TRUE FUSION COURSE

Here we have full recognition of the contribution which the various junior high school social studies have to make. Here also is a plan for their fusion into one course which will better serve the fundamental purpose of education on the junior high school level. It is not the abolition of subject lines which is advocated, but the abolition of subject viewpoints, a substitution of the viewpoint of the teacher of children for the viewpoint of the specialist in history, geography, or government. A fusion course is proposed because in one such course the functional purpose can be more economically and efficiently accomplished than it can be in three subject courses.

This brings us to the fundamental principle of a true fusion course, the principle which Professor Wilson has overlooked.

"Perhaps what distinguishes the social subjects from one another," he says, "is not a body of knowledge but a point of view, a method of approach, which is itself an insight into society, and even this approach is subject to the mutations of time. . . . Social

studies treat of very much the same data, but approach and interpret it from different points of view—in the present generation, history from the standpoint of societal evolution; geography from the standpoint of man's relation to his physical environment; and civics from the standpoint of the functional utilization and manipulation of organized group life."

Precisely. We agree as to these different points of view. It is because of them that we advocate fusion. The specialist emphasizes the particular point of view of his special subject. The point of view of the junior high school teacher should be quite different from that of the historian, the geographer, or the political scientist. On the junior high school level, societal evolution has value only as it serves to throw light upon the social experiences of the child, man's relation to his physical environment is of interest only as it helps the pupil to adjust himself to that environment, and knowledge of group life is useful only if it is acquired in such a way that he who acquires it can apply it in the groups of which he is a part. The true fusionist sees children in contact with their environments and asks himself how he can best use historical, geographical, and civic materials for the purpose of promoting adjustment. His eye is always on the child, not on the aims of history or geography or civics. How these subjects can be used to accomplish the fundamental aims of education is his problem, not how the pupil can be made to master a subject for its own sake. He organizes social studies materials, not in terms of themselves, but, to use L. C. Marshall's phrase "in terms of the purpose of introducing those studies." He is not satisfied with mastery of subject-matter, but so organizes his materials that their mastery will be most likely to result in those concomitant learnings which Kilpatrick has reminded us are the aim of those who are aware of the wider problem of method. The original fusion course, as developed and demonstrated during the past ten years by R. W. Hatch, is organized according to this point of view.

What, then, is the fundamental principle upon which fusionists stand? Not denying that functional material may be included in subject courses and claiming no monopoly upon the use of the unit, in what respects do they differ from others? Primarily in the fact that they insist upon a functional *organization* as well as a functional content. This principle, it may be said, also underlies unified courses of the Rugg type. Unificationists and fusionists, all of whom are incorrectly included under the latter term by Professor Wilson, agree upon this principle. The fusionists, however, have not embarked upon as ambitious a program as the unificationists. The Hatch course attempts only to use history, geography, and civics. The Rugg course attempts a new synthesis of knowledge without regard for current courses.

In order to evaluate the two plans, it is necessary to compare them as wholes. When a particular unit is selected for comparison, the differences in the method of developing the fundamental principle of functional organization are not wholly apparent. Those interested in the matter should take the trouble to

make this thorough comparison for themselves. Mr. Rugg's textbooks are on the market and Mr. Hatch has described the fusion organization in his *Training in Citizenship* and other writings. Space here does not permit the reproduction of the two courses *in toto*. The best that we can do is to reprint the units on the industrial revolution which Wilson exhibits from Burnham, an historian, and from Rugg, the unificationist, and add, for comparison, Hatch's plan for the same unit. The latter is the only one of the three to which the term "fusion" can be correctly applied.

It will be noted that in the Hatch outline, the subject-matter is used throughout as a means or instrument for introducing the child to the present situation. The child's attitude toward the industrial revolution, rather than a bare remembrance of the facts, is regarded as the important outcome of the study. Furthermore, and this is the crucial point, it is believed that the organization of the materials in some such way as this, instead of in the way it would be done by a historian or a sociologist or a geographer, contributes vitally to the realization of this outcome. The outline given here was prepared by Mr. W. Harry Snyder, and has been used by him in his classes in the College High School of the State Teachers College at Upper Montclair, New Jersey. It represents one possible and successful outline based on the Hatch principle of fusion. Similar outlines, differing in form and detail could be worked out by other teachers according to the same principle. In other words, this is not a stereotype but one of many possible examples.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

(Burnham, *The Making of Our Country*)

- A. New ways of working and living
 1. In England
 2. In America
- B. Spinning and weaving
 1. New machines for spinning
 2. The power loom
- C. The rise of the factory system
 1. Early factories
 2. Power and raw material
 - a. Water power
 - b. The steam engine
- D. The cotton gin and its effect
- E. The development of the iron industry
- F. The use of coal
- G. Changes in transportation
 1. The steamboat
 2. Turnpikes and canals
 3. Early railroads
- H. Effect of the War of 1812 on American Industry
- I. Changes in agricultural life
- J. Significance of the Industrial Revolution in American history

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

(Rugg, *An Introduction to American Civilization*)

- A. Iron and Steel: the material of which the industrial world is built
 1. Early ways of making iron
 2. The Kelly-Bessemer process
 3. Modern methods of making steel
 4. Increased production of steel since 1850
 5. Iron resources in the United States
 - a. Discovery of iron resources
 - b. Location of iron mines and steel mills

- c. Comparison of America's resources with those of other nations
- d. International interdependence in the making of steel
- B. The Industrial Revolution
 - 1. Man's slow advance in making tools
 - 2. Coming of the industrial revolutions
 - a. In spinning and weaving
 - b. In the shoe industry
 - c. In the automobile industry
 - 3. Changes wrought by the industrial revolution
 - a. Rise of factories
 - b. Specialization in Cuba
 - c. Standardization of output
 - d. Improvement of standard of living
 - 4. The industrial revolution today

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

(By W. Harry Snyder, S.T.C., Upper Montclair, N.J.)

General Problem: How has the Industrial Revolution influenced the conditions under which we live?

- I. Could we get along without machines?
 - A. How would we build our houses, churches, schools, and places of business?
 - B. In what way would we prepare our foods, grind our grain, and slice our meats?
 - C. How would we weave our cloth and sew our clothing?
 - D. Would we be able to travel from one place to another, communicate with one another and transport our freight?
 - E. Could we light, heat, and clean our dwellings?
- II. Was there ever a time when men did not have machines?
 - A. By what means did the Egyptians build the pyramids?
 - B. With what power did the Romans propel their boats across the sea to attack Carthage?
 - C. How did the feudal knights construct their armor and shields?
 - D. With what did the peasants on the English manors sew the seeds and cut the harvests?
- III. Why did men first invent and use machinery in England about the middle of the eighteenth century?
 - A. Did England possess better natural advantages for industry than other nations?
 - B. To what extent had England's commerce been hampered by medieval laws?
 - C. How had England developed colonies to supply raw materials and serve as markets for surplus manufactured goods?
 - D. How had Englishmen stored up idle capital for investment in industrial enterprises?
 - E. Did England's textile industry lend itself especially to the use of machinery?
 - F. To what extent did England possess those natural resources—iron and coal—which proved so essential in making machinery?
 - G. How did the stability of the English government compare with that of the nations on the continent?
- IV. What were the first mechanical developments to be made?
 - A. In the spinning and weaving of textiles?
 - B. For the production of power?
 - C. For the manufacture of iron and steel?
 - D. In coal mining?
 - E. For improving transportation?
- V. Did the change to mechanical production have much influence upon the life of the people who lived during the century following 1750?
 - A. Why did it cause the people to leave the country and congregate in the towns and cities?
 - B. Why did it force the women and children to work in the factories?
 - C. How did it lead to long working days and unhealthful living conditions?
- D. Why did the new class of capitalists obtain the position of influence in British politics, which had formerly been held by the land owners?
- E. Why did the backward section north of the Trent rapidly become a busy hive of industry?
- VI. How has governmental legislation improved those conditions created by the Industrial Revolution?
 - A. What has been the effect of child labor laws?
 - B. What have been the advantages of compulsory compensation in case of injury to a workman?
 - C. What have been the best provisions of more recent "factory" laws?
- VII. What new conditions have resulted from the spread of the Industrial Revolution throughout the world?
 - A. How many new opportunities have been brought to the peasants of France, Germany, and Russia?
 - B. How have the common people been encouraged to fight for freedom from the oppressive rules of absolute monarchs?
 - C. In what way has its spread helped to break up the large feudal estates into small privately owned farms?
 - D. How has it aided the development of nationalism?
- VIII. To what extent has the spread of the Industrial Revolution to the United States had an effect upon you?
 - A. Has it kept prices lower?
 - B. Have transportation and communication been made easier and more rapid?
 - C. Has your choice of an occupation been widened?
 - D. Have articles that you use become more standardized and free from imperfections?
 - E. Has it given you more time for recreation and travel?
- IX. How may you be called upon to help solve some problems which have arisen because of the Industrial Revolution?
 - A. What will be your attitude toward the large profits taken from industry by groups of capitalists?
 - B. What solution will you offer to the tenement and slum problems arising in our large congested cities?
 - C. How do you believe we may make up for the increasing migration of farmers into our cities?
 - D. Will you work to prevent the introduction of new machinery that may throw men out of work and increase unemployment?
 - E. What will be your attitude towards the further development of powerful trade unions among our workmen?

Sir Arthur Salter's analysis of the past year and a half which is found in the winter number of the *Yale Review* is somewhat more hopeful in tone than his earlier articles were. The financial crisis which accompanied the depression consisted essentially in the fact that one part of the world being no longer able to borrow, could no longer pay what it owed. The immediate result was a crisis in international financial relations of a kind unknown in history. One significant aspect of the crisis has been, he points out, the distrust of internal institutions, accompanied by hoarding of wealth. The Glass-Steagall Act has counteracted the powerful deflationary forces created by such distrust, so that the worst dangers seem past. The Lausanne Settlement has also been an important factor, and likewise the English Conversion. There are some indications of natural recovery apparent in the last few weeks—evidences that new forces are available if we will but use them.

The History Drama-Project in the High School

By EBEN T. COLBY

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THE PROJECT METHOD

Everywhere disciples of Frederick Burk are putting his gospel of individualized study of tool subjects and social motivation through group activities into practice. Through his immediate associates, Carleton Washburn, Louise Mohr, Willard Beatty, and Helen Parkhurst, and their brain-children, the Winnetka and Dalton plans, the plea to "humanize education" has become generally heeded. At first pioneering systems embraced the new idea and numerous "plans" were instituted in direct imitation of the original schemes of individualized instruction. Now, few schoolmen fail to recognize and provide adaptation for individual differences in the tool subjects, but the majority lack the initiative to put the other more subjective but equally essential element of these plans, Burk's socialization through group work, into their organizations.¹

Our schools, while attentive, often with a harmfully exaggerated tendency, to individual differences in learning capacities in all subjects, frequently apply objective tool methods to the social studies in the upper grades with the result that the idealistic, socio-civic aim of these subjects is lost. Progressive teachers remedy this fault by departmental clubs, organizations based on out-of-class study of problems arising in regular courses, encouragement of extra-credit group work done outside classes, and by the use of the "project."² The number of interpretations of this term is probably as large as the number of teachers employing it. Originally referring to long-term agricultural assignments, then adopted by teachers of the manual arts and, later, of science, it came to have significance, during the war years, for almost any sort of work laid out, or projected, as a student activity aimed to serve some war purpose, as well as to teach an appreciation or a skill. It was considered vaguely as "a problematic act carried to completion." Relation to subject matter in the curriculum was distant or lacking. Those in the grades at this period remember the first projects: hospital quilts of gaily-colored knitted squares, war maps with their shifting lines of pin-heads, drawings or actual collections of flags with accompanying war data for the nation symbolized by each, sand-table "No-man's-lands," studies of the work of the Red Cross, the various army corps, development of airplanes, tanks, artillery, and so on endlessly.³ Projects often lost their value as, pupil-dominated instead of teacher-guided, they lacked purpose and educative motivation. An elaborately worked out chart comparing the naval equipment of the war-

ring powers or a beautifully staged flag tableau were of no account without proper "follow-up" to insure informational and appreciative progress to the whole class.

Kilpatrick saw where the fad was sweeping over-zealously up-to-date teachers and defined the project as "any unit of purposeful experience, any instance of purposeful activity where the dominating purpose, as an inner urge, (1) fixes the aim of the action, (2) guides its process, and (3) furnishes its drive."⁴ Admitting its elasticity we shall accept this definition, for we believe it connotes any sort of pupil activity from collecting and editing pictures illustrating feudal life to carrying to completion an elaborate Dalton contract, as long as the work is motivated toward a definite and educationally valid objective, and as long as the whole class benefits from its fulfillment regardless of the number actually working on it.

THE MOVING PICTURE PROJECT

A type of project which is having its fad and which, it would seem, is found wanting, is the classroom moving picture. The reason for its lack of success is that its objective has not been clearly enough understood by all who use it. It is used too often superficially, before large groups, with no follow-up, and can produce, psychologically, no lasting impression on its audience. Only effort and work plus interest and motivation can make teaching useful. Several years ago Thomas Edison created a furor by predicting that all teaching would eventually be done by the motion picture projector. Studies and experiments on the new visual aid led schools to buy expensive equipment and flooded the market with useless "educational" films. Edison's qualifying statement, made in 1925, that the motion picture could only supplement the teacher, passed unheeded, and aimless showing of inapropos films has continued. Dorris, with other visual education experts, emphatically points out that the motion picture has a definite function in education: to introduce and to review a subject—but not to teach it.⁵ The teacher, in performing his function, guides the learning process, which can in no measure be substituted by any series of impressions visual or oral. Yet schools which can afford it, and some which can not, are purchasing projector outfits in increasing numbers, and, according to the findings of Wood and Freeman in an objective survey of the effect of teaching films on a large test group in comparison with an equal controlled group taught without it, they are

justified in doing so only when the accompanying course is carefully constructed to use them as a means to an end and not as the end itself.⁶

THE STORY-TELLING RECITATION

As with the motion picture project, listening to story-telling is often an inexcusable waste of time. Yet story-telling is a sound means of providing motivation or illustrating a generalization. It may be informational when a follow-up technique is employed and, in general, it can be used in emotional motivation without the follow-up. It is comparable to the motion picture in its educationally dubious function of providing relaxation or entertainment, and all teachers know its sedative effect on restless children. Its use as an element in teaching is in eclipse in this generation of pupil-activity but story-telling teachers will defend their old-fashioned idiosyncrasy on the grounds that instruction in the most formative years, the pre-school and primary period, is best presented through stories; that colleges and universities, except in the laboratory and the graduate seminar, continue to teach by lecture; and that some of the greatest precepts of religion are taught by parables. Nowlin advocates story-telling as a pedagogical tool through the ninth grade, and the Millises demonstrate its use, especially as a pupil-activity, in the last three grades.⁷ It is particularly adaptable to the social studies, and the history teacher, from the first grade to the last year in high school, who has a fund of anecdotes or a gift for inventing stories about Country A and Country B or Mr. X and Mr. Y, may never be haunted by the specter of an apathetic, unmotivated class.⁸

The border-line between story-telling and story acting is shadowy. A good story-teller unconsciously dramatizes a situation by subtle manipulation of voice and gestures, and hearers unconsciously follow the story, acting within themselves as though they were the characters. The physiological processes which are occasioned in a listener by the recounting of a story, or in a spectator of a play or movie, are familiar to all of us.⁹ Since a story is, subconsciously, dramatized by its hearers, let the students reproduce it in their own words and with their own physical interpretations and the highest form of education is obtained—learning through experience. The drama-project combines the benefit to the class which the film purposes to provide with those of hearing a story and, in addition, is a socialized group activity, pupil-motivated, pupil-written, and pupil-produced.

DRAMATIZATION IN UPPER GRADES

Dramatization is seldom used as a classroom tool outside the elementary grades, but its use in the last six grades is valid. In these grades it becomes primarily instructive rather than recreational and so must be used, like the film or the story, as a means of teaching a unit and not as the unit itself. Lest this method of teaching too be considered too childish to be used by a teacher of high school pupils we should point out that we first became acquainted with its po-

tentialities while a graduate student in one of Charles Kingsley Webster's courses at Harvard. This teacher, an outstanding specialist in the history of British foreign policy, regularly assigns dramatic dialogues instead of the traditional dry-as-dust "term papers."¹⁰

Impetus for the construction of a drama-project ought to come from the class. A class discussion might involve the concept of the balance of trade. This may be clarified by a chalk diagram of piles of goods being diminished or increased in a set of countries with the proper white arrows indicating the flow of goods and others drawn in yellow to represent gold. But with students as countries, books for goods, and paper slips properly inscribed for money values, the idea is presented much more concretely. A pupil requests a repetition as he is a little vague even now as to why the balance is favorable to Alice. He takes her place and the series of trading operations is repeated. On the following day let Russell become the United States and William, Germany; let pupils represent farm machinery, cheaply manufactured metal ware, refrigerated meats, wheat, ores, and so on; pin on them the requisite valuations; effect an exchange, and let the class figure the balance. Then, in a brief follow-up test, ask for a résumé of the "act" and introduce problems: "What would have been the long-run effect of the Austro-German Zollverein of 1931 upon the exportation of American food-stuffs to Germany if it had been permitted to operate?" "With the characters and properties of our foreign exchange sketch how might we illustrate a tariff?" Other similar problems suggest themselves.¹¹

Often motivation will present itself as a definition, difficult to express orally. For example, difficulty in defining the term "national convention" in the study of the pre-Civil War unit in the eighth grade led to a drama-project in which the entire class took active and interested part, and which eventually landed them behind the foot-lights in a public exhibition. The experience taught us that this climax is undesirable as the objective of the project. The generalization which is taught is not apparent to the proud parents who form the audience. They see it as a performance, admire the pupils' presentation of their speeches and the teacher's evident labor in drilling their darlings, without realizing that the actors are actually living their parts, having prepared and learned their lines in the same spirit in which the characters represented learned theirs, and basing them upon exactly the same historical facts which appeared as current problems to the characters.

Following an informal dramatization of a convention in which the pupils were officers, committee-chairmen, and delegates, we specifically set out to reproduce the Republican National Convention of 1860. Every member of the class played at least one rôle (frequently representing more than one state delegation in the roll-calls) and played it to the hilt. We learned more concrete facts about Lincoln, Seward, Buchanan, and Douglas, the whole development of the slavery question, the difficult problem of states rights, the practical politics of Lincoln's manager, Davis, and,

through this, the whole gamut of political compromises, sale of votes for office and privilege, and many of the other operations of a presidential nominating convention than we could possibly have gleaned from the corresponding time spent with traditional wrestling with the text for the same unit.¹²

ORIGINAL DRAMAS FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The fact that there are several volumes of dramatized historical incidents available immediately occurs to the teacher. But it is essential with high school classes that the sketches be original. To derive maximum good from their project the pupils must originate it, develop it, and produce it without external help except from reference materials and reasonable guidance from the teacher. For this reason it is best that the teacher, in the presentation of each unit, make an assignment of basic drama-project ideas, as some of the newer junior high texts and workbooks are already doing, in order that the students may make a choice and proceed, under guidance, to work it into producible form.¹³

Motivation may not only thus be stimulated artificially but may be induced through the use of pictures or teacher-made descriptions of dramatic episodes. The best pictures to use in high school classes are those depicting action by groups of recognizable characters. There is a wealth of suggestion in David's "Oath of the Tennis Court," yet Leutze's "Washington Crossing the Delaware," while dramatic enough, cannot become the basis of a drama-project. Collections of historical scenes from the various firms dealing in visual aids and any of the more recent texts abound with illustrative material which might serve as inspiration.

Often the teacher may interest the class in developing a drama-project by pointing out and describing some specific incident in the unit. A helpful dialogue was produced by two World History students portraying Bismarck and King William I at Babelsberg on the occasion of the thwarted abdication of the King. The dramatic story of Prussia's past achievements, her expansion, and her glorious future as mistress of a united Germany was revealed by our Bismarck; while our cynical, disillusioned old monarch told of the disgraces of her past, the failure of her present, and the disaster of a future under the anarchy of an all-powerful liberal Parliament, or perhaps crushed under the heel of Austria. Bismarck's sincere faith and the Hohenzollern's petty obstinacy were beautifully brought out and taught us more German history than a two-hundred page assignment in Henderson.

Our dramatization of Appomattox Court House in the eighth grade, motivated, likewise, by an informal teacher-description, was equally successful. While it was much more simply portrayed, its production was satisfactory since more pupils were given an opportunity for lines. With younger pupils it is wiser to spread such a project to include a large section, if not the whole class. In this class, too, our unit on the Industrial Revolution was climaxed by a symposium of American inventors of all periods who told, rather

boastfully, we fear, of the contributions they had made to the material progress of our country. Our inspiration on this occasion came from the numerous radio "birthday parties" at which famous guests, long dead, tell their life stories.

Active interest is aroused by the hunting down of detailed references necessary for a complete picture of the incident to be portrayed. Everybody in the group working out the dramatization has a specific task to perform. Several problems arise in the first consideration of the project which can be assigned for individual solution. One pupil studies pictures and contemporary descriptions to find out how the characters looked, what they wore, in what sort of a setting the contemplated action took place. He organizes this material as a foreword which he reads to the class upon presentation. Another pupil is assigned the construction of the skeleton of the "drama," telling the factual basis of the incident and tying it into its place in the unit. This paper is later read to introduce or to follow the action. The rest of the committee determine the number of characters, plot their actions, entrances and exits, and prepare the dialogue. The whole group, motivated by desire to out do the group which produced the last exhibition project, striving to master the subject matter, and stimulated by the novelty of the work and the fun of mutual criticism and the rehearsals, moves the work rapidly.

In preparing the dialogue, résumé, and foreword correlation with the pupils' work in tool English is to be expected. Infractions of grammatical usage, gaucheries of speech, involved constructions, glaringly bad slang, and lack of unity are to be condemned as wholeheartedly here as in the English class.¹⁴ One of the most universally accepted objectives of education in any subject is the development of the skill of expressing thought understandably. Here, where material is to be heard in general class meeting only once, is an admirable place to cultivate this skill. The presentation must represent the closest approximation to perfection that the committee can achieve. Practice in expression in a group is given in the preparation of the script and, in rehearsals, self-assurance is promoted which should carry through into life situations.

In such a project as the presidential nominating convention mentioned above, a political campaign, a "demos," or any dramatization with speaking parts for a large number, preparation and production is much easier if each character, limited in speaking time and topic, and working under supervision, prepares his part in his own words. When the dramatization has few characters it is better to prepare the dialogue in committee with each member working for the group as a whole, leaving the casting until it is completed.

In order to develop a logical sequence of statements, questions and answers which will tell the desired story, every dialogue writer must be imbued with the background and the event portrayed. Contemporary allusions must be sought and, above all, naturalness, not a catechismic question and answer recital, must be insisted upon. Regrettably, most adult authors of history playlets, even when writing for the grades, stilt

their characters and make a drama best described as "pageantry" which, for its forced feeding of factual history, however garnished, is unsatisfactory. Study of a few playlets for general school use will greatly assist the beginner in acquiring naturalness.¹⁵

CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL PLAYS

If the teacher reads a few of these plays he will be convinced of certain principles underlying their construction:

1. *They are short*, capable of being played in a single period. The project supervisor should bear this rule in mind although, with student-made productions, designed primarily for instruction, it must not be considered iron-clad.

2. *They are coherent units*, in general portraying a series of incidents which take place in a short space of time. No "curtain falls to denote a lapse of two years" or even two days. If a lapse is necessary, it may be filled by a continuity reader, à la radio.

3. *There is considerable repetition* of information necessary to further the action. The old stage precept that "the audience must be told what is to happen, see it happen, and told it has happened," is closely observed.

4. *The lines are short*, primarily to lay the ghost of dullness which too frequently haunts child-plays, and secondarily to make them easy to learn.

5. *They are not somber* but purposely brightened by such highlights as a character with dialect speech, an easily understandable pun or, perhaps, an unexpected lapse of dignity which (as was seen of Franklin in the Yale film on Independence) tend to make the traditionally grand figures of history human after all. The teacher, if he sees the theme carrying his project into the dry fog of too objective history, should inject a little light in the form of a humorous character, or by humanizing the stilted language. Even the ancient Greeks, whom we might portray in a reproduction of a symposium, said, as naturally as we: "It's up to you," "He'll get all that's coming to him," and "You said something!"¹⁶

6. *There are many characters*. Supernumerary characters are introduced in order that several pupils may have an opportunity to strut the boards, unconsciously learning the lines of all while listening for their own cues, and feeling themselves vital parts of the play. In the number of characters and the opportunity given them, regardless of I.Q., to co-operate in the making of the play, and in its actual presentation, we have the essence of socialization.

7. *They are full of action*. So, in our history dramas, the campaign speaker stamps up and down, gesticulating wildly as he abuses his opponent; the immigrant waves his arms and raises his voice in rapid speech as he recounts the benefits he expects when he will have received his "second papers"; even the Father of Our Country paces restlessly and wrings his hands in despair as officers bring him news of desertions, activities of Tories, and lack of funds and supplies. A child loves to act and, properly encouraged, interprets well. Dramatic history is his favorite field for "he is

essentially interested in action. While he may call up for his purpose people long since dead, and scenes long since forgotten, his picture is always a thing of life and action and movement, because he has injected himself into it, reliving its tense moments, and re-enacting its thrilling episodes."¹⁷

8. *They are in the language of the child* and use, as far as possible, short Anglo-Saxon derivatives. Bookish and encyclopedic phrases should be culled out at an early committee meeting. We shall never forget the fiery finish of Leo's speech nominating Lincoln: "We want a He-man!", nor Edwin's matter-of-fact reason, as Hannibal addressing the Twenty Generals, for entering Italy from the north: "The Italians are mighty sick of paying Rome's taxes and fighting her wars. They'll join us as soon as they see our elephants."

It will be found increasingly easy to inculcate these elements of playwriting in the members of the committees, for already high school English classes are studying the mechanics of the drama, and for some years the primary grades have been writing and producing "The Little Red Hen" and "The Three Bears."¹⁸ There should be preliminary consideration of the mechanical aspects of the project before the actual writing begins. At an early meeting of the committee the number and function of the acts and scenes, dramatic unity, and plot structure should be discussed. Co-ordination among members of the committee, each doing his best on his appointed task in research or writing, and co-operation of the pupils in striving for absolute perfection of dialogue and mechanics are essential for the success of the project.

In staging the project as a classroom activity, there is no place for the customary adjuncts of a theatrical performance. No properties beyond the barest necessities, no lighting except ordinary illumination, are required in its production. While detailed properties, however makeshift, are desirable in the grades, a high school boy feels absurd carrying a sword about before his fellows, for here the play element is replaced by a sincere creative effort, and he feels more a teacher of his classmates than a strutting little show-off. As the appearance of the characters is described in the foreword, costume and makeup are unnecessary. One teacher describes her high school pupils wearing unravelled rope beards as soldiers at Thermopolae.¹⁹ It would seem that the whole educative value would be lost in the entertainment element of such an exhibition. We can see how such hirsute accouterments might be effective up to the seventh grade, but beyond this we find a blasé, no-Santa Claus attitude destructive to the illusion.

ALL STUDENTS INCLUDED

In the drama-project no one need be overlooked. It is not a happy-hunting-ground for the aggressive type of pupil who naturally gravitates to dramatics, but is essentially an educative medium for all. By judicious casting the teacher can give habitually retiring boys and girls a chance to appear before their mates in self-created rôles. A pedagogical opportunity is presented to cast a little, self-conscious lad as an aggres-

sive leader of men, or the class Paul Bunyan as a soft-spoken priest. If properly motivated the pupils will overlook such incongruities particularly if the project group is small and not greatly diverse in makeup. Individual differences are also cared for. The low I.Q. pupil can be given the foreword to learn and deliver at presentation. He may be given certain routine work in research during the preparation of the dialogue, or he may be made a stage-hand whose work will consist of carrying on such properties as the sketch may require.

As in any well-managed theatrical production a strong sense of responsibility pervades all connected with the drama-project. This is fostered not only by rehearsals but in projecting, organizing, and writing the playlet. An esprit de corps becomes noticeable as soon as it is well started. Often the committee works in deepest secrecy, begging the teacher not to disclose details of the project until the goal is reached. In this socialization of a group lies the greatest value of the drama-project. With presentation the socialization extends to the class. A general discussion follows the performance in which both actors and audience take part. The playlet is criticized and defended, portions are re-acted, and generalizations as to the characters and event, and their place in the panorama of history are made. Then a short follow-up test is administered to the whole group to clinch the generalizations. This test includes, along with objective items, a question demanding a résumé of the playlet, and a subjective question to test the pupils' appreciation. Without the follow-up, just as has been shown repeatedly by investigators of the use of visual aids and the story-lecture, the drama-project is worthless to all except those immediately concerned with its production.

This type of pupil-activity is in complete accord with the newer tendency of making the classroom the "center of 'whole-hearted purposeful activity,' where 'effort never degenerates into drudgery because interest abides—the self is concerned throughout.'"²⁰ By it the whole educative process: experiencing, thinking, and doing, takes place; and Kilpatrick's four types of project are rolled into one. That is: (1) the *external form type* is met by the writing and producing of the playlet; (2) *enjoyment of an aesthetic experience* occurs when the project group creates and the class witnesses, a product of more or less artistic skill; (3) *solving a problem* by deciding how best to express a chronicled event by dialogue and action; and (4) *developing a skill* in carrying out problematic research, even though a simple type.²¹

Hand in hand with information, skill, self-expression, and socialization as objectives met by the drama-project is the discipline of working under direction. Whipping a cast into presentable shape is not difficult as far as lines are concerned. Morale is not lost if pupils chafe under restrictions imposed at rehearsals if the director proceeds with casting and directing as he sees fit, and works rapidly. With the lines practically memorized before rehearsals commence, owing to the actors' part in writing them, no more than two are required. Three rehearsals, except for a public performance, are exceptional.

TOPICS FOR CLASS PLAYS

Throughout this report there have been references to topics for dramatization. The best way for a teacher to collect titles to put before his classes is to locate action pictures for each unit of his course, deriving material from texts, picture publishing companies, newspapers, and magazines. He must always be alert to passages replete with drama in the texts and references he reads. He must develop what is comparable to the journalistic "nose for news" and teach himself to ferret out a dramatic situation from apparently dull reading. When reading for recreation he may make notes, mentally, at least, of potentialities for drama-projects.

Certain situations in Edward Lucas White's short stories and novels are ideal bases for high school pupils' original work in the sociological aspect of Ancient History. Teachers and pupils will find Sabatini's "Historical Nights" filled with enough dramatic incident for a several years' sequence of drama-projects for many units of the World History course. Similarly rich in historical incident, often sociological or economic in nature, are F. Britten Austin's familiar "Saga" stories and "Toward the Millennium" which have appeared serially in the *Saturday Evening Post* in recent years. Newspapers and news magazines abound in material for well-rounded playlets for the Civics or Problems of Democracy classes. In them is found inspiration for a variety of projects from a conference on local community planning or mediation between capital and labor in a current industrial dispute to the negotiation of the latest international treaty. Organization of such projects may be studied in Greenan and Meredith's problems text. These, unfortunately, tend to degenerate into pageants which are heartily abhorred by high school seniors. Sources for drama-projects in United States History are almost self-suggestive. Scanning a gossippy, anecdotal, several-volume text will reward any interested teacher. Other excellent sources are suggested by Webber and Webster in their rather complete bibliography at the end of their "Short Plays."²²

¹ Butler, J. H., "The Pioneer Burk School." *Journal of the National Education Association*, XVIII, 3 (March, 1929), 75-76.

² Branom, Mendel, *The Project Method in Education*. Boston: Richard Badger, 1919. Pp. 200-219. A limited but suggestive treatment of the project in history.

³ Monroe, Walter S., "Projects and the Project Method." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, XXIII, 30 (1926), p. 3.

⁴ Stevenson, J. A., *The Project Method of Teaching*. New York: Macmillan, 1921. Pp. 40-43.

⁵ Kilpatrick, W. H., "Dangers and Difficulties of the Project Method and How to Overcome Them—a Symposium." *Teachers College Record*, XXII, September, 1921. P. 283.

⁶ Dorris, Anna V., "Visual Instruction in Class-room Teaching." *Journal of the National Education Association*, XVIII, 5 (May, 1929), Pp. 151-2.

⁷ Colvin, Steven Sheldon, *The Learning Process*. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. 92-96.

⁸ Finegan, Thomas E., "Recent Experiments in Class-room Procedure." *National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings*, Department of Visual Education, 1928. Pp. 458-459.

* Nowlin, Clifford H., *The Story teller and His Pack*. Springfield: Bradley, 1929. Pp. 139-146.

Millis, William A. and Harriet H., *The Teaching of High School Subjects*. New York: Century, 1925. Pp. 176-177, 180-182.

* Platts, P. K., "The Story-telling Recitation." *Historical Outlook*, XIX, 1 (January, 1928), Pp. 35-36. A technique of pupil story-telling in the ninth grade which appears to be a valid device for occasional use.

Cather, Katherine Dunlap, *Educating by Story Telling*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book, 1919. Pp. 143-167. Chapter on use of the history story, for telling or dramatization, for use through the ninth grade but applicable in the higher grades.

* Nowlin, op cit., 14-15.

* Cook, H. Caldwell, *The Play Way*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes, 1917. Passim. A pioneer treatise on directed play as an educational method. Material gathered at the Perse School, Cambridge, England, a school for boys up to sixteen years of age, where play is the principal teaching tool used. Many of our own ideas, impracticable because of limited periods in a public school, have been made into sound theory and practice here.

* Welsh, Margaret, "Informal Dramatization." *Historical Outlook*, XVII, 5 (May, 1926), 238-241. Excellent ideas for similar spur-of-the-moment dramatizations to motivate sixth grade history. They are very simple and do not involve the study a drama-project in the high school involves. Here success depends on earnest application and not on the naïveté of the pupils taking part.

* Hackett, Roger C., "A Mock National Convention." *Historical Outlook*, XIX, 6 (October, 1928), 270-273. Useful hints for a convention with a high school group; but too elaborate, involving the whole school, each home-room representing a state. In its entirety impracticable though undoubtedly instructive of mechanical procedure and useful as a socializing agent if used in outline.

A similar mock convention is described by Russell L. Shay in "A Mock Nominating Convention." *Historical Outlook*, XIX, 3 (March, 1928), 124-125. The whole school was involved in its production. A week of "campaigning" by candidates visiting home-room "states" before the two-week convention must have put the school under unwarranted tension.

* Webber, James Plaisted, and Webster, Hanson Hart, *Short Plays for Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston, New York, etc.: Houghton Mifflin, 1925. Pp. 297-310. An excellent bibliography of short plays, many historical in character.

* Leonard, Sterling Andrus, "Some Experiments in Co-operation between History and English in the High School." *Historical Outlook*, XIV, 5 (May, 1923), 180-181.

* Webber and Webster, op. cit., *passim*, and Barnum, Madalene D., *School Plays for All Occasions*. New York: Barse and Hopkins, 1922, *passim*. Contrast these brilliant sketches with those below, prepared specifically for history classes by history teachers. Only the least "pageantry" of those published the past ten years are listed:

a. Knowlton, Daniel C., "Teaching of History in the Junior High School—Dramatization." *Historical Outlook*, XVI, 5 (May, 1925), 222-225. Building of Parthenon and the Peloponnesian War: pupil-written, rather imperfectly done, but designed to be acted informally. Excellent theoretical justification for dramatization given in article.

b. Lawson, Marie H., "Making History Up-to-date." *Historical Outlook*, XVIII, 2 (February, 1927), 82-87. "Marathon" for high school group. Good material but written in verse!

c. Batman, Nancy Miles, "Making History Real by Dramatization." *Historical Outlook*, XVIII, 7 (November, 1927), 332-334. Plays on Egyptian religion and Thermopole. Well-organized, teacher-written, practical. Workable suggestions for other plays also given.

d. Bickford, Miretta L., "An Evening in a Castle, a Playlet for Class Use." *Historical Outlook*, XIX, 4 (April, 1928), 175-177. High-flown language but well developed project for sociological history. Could be pupil-revised for actual use.

e. Carter, Thyra, "A Thanksgiving Day Play." *Historical Outlook*, XX, 7 (November, 1929), 343-345. Excellent, but teacher-made.

* Gulick, Charles Burton, *Modern Traits in Old Greek Life*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1927. 8. This little volume is rich in social history material capable of serving as a source for a wide variety of drama-projects on the Greek unit of a World History Course.

* Welsh, op cit., 241, Quoting D. C. Knowlton.

* Knowlton, op cit., (note 15), 223.

* Batman, op cit., (note 15), 333.

* Glick, Annette, "Visual Instruction and the History Laboratory." *Historical Outlook*, XX, 3 (March, 1929), 129. Inclosed quotations are Miss Glick's.

* *Ibid.*, 129-130.

Stevenson, J. A., *The Project Method of Teaching*. New York: Macmillan, 1921. Pp. 40-43.

* White, Edward Lucas, *Andivius Hedulio*, 1921; *Song of the Sirens and Other Stories*, 1919; *Unwilling Vestal*, 1918. New York: E. P. Dutton.

Sabatini, Rafael, *The Historical Nights Entertainment*. 2v., Boston, New York, etc.: Houghton Mifflin, 1924.

Greenan, John T. and Meredith, Albert B., *Everyday Problems of American Democracy*. Boston, New York, etc.: Houghton Mifflin, 1924.

McMaster, John Bach, *History of the People of the United States*. 8v. New York: Appleton, 1883-1913.

Webber and Webster, op. cit. (note 13), 311-313 Bibliography.

Knowlton, op. cit. (note 15), 225. Good bibliography on drama-projects and sources for them.

Johnson, Henry, *Teaching of History*. New York: Macmillan, 1928. Pp. 467-468. Small but suggestive list of sources for drama-projects.

The March *Harper's* contains the first of two installments of the "Journal of Gamaliel Bradford" whose historical-biographical studies have opened new vistas of the possibilities awaiting the historian. In the same number is an article by Elmer Davis, "If Roosevelt Fails," companion piece to his "If Hoover Fails," written four years ago and showing such prophetic insight, that the credulous reader may hesitate to read the later article, preferring to take his future on faith, instead of having it so vividly foretold.

G. T. Garrett writes of the Third Round Table Conference in the February number of *The Nineteenth Century*. He says that while it did not succeed in allaying the suspicions of the Indian Liberals, it did prevent a number of mistakes and exaggerations on both sides by clarifying and defining the safeguards, and reducing the disagreement regarding them. Despite all difficulties the Conference achieved more than was expected at the outset, and it left little doubt that the Federal Government will be established in India and that a sufficient proportion of states will join to insure its success.

The Contemporary World

By CLARA L. DENTLER

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THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD (1688 edition) was printed as a supplement to THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK in the March edition, and to call attention to the desirability of this method of teaching history, we have decided to include another issue of that journal. ["THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD 1815" appears as section II of this issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.]

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, PH.D., *Harvard University*

BROCHURES ON ACHIEVEMENTS OF CIVILIZATION

Announcement of the earlier publications of the Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education (5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago) has been made in this column. To the three pamphlets earlier published (*The Story of Writing*, *The Story of Numbers*, and *The Story of Weights and Measures*) three more have been added. *The Story of Our Calendar* is a 32-page brochure selling for ten cents; *Telling Time throughout the Centuries*, 64 pages, sells for twenty cents; *Rules of the Road*, 32 pages, sells for ten cents. There are liberal discounts for quantity orders. The material is of exceptional value for social-science classes.

RACE RELATIONS

The Executive Committee of the Second Peabody Conference on Education and Race Relations (703 Standard Building, Atlanta, Georgia) has issued a report of the conference held at George Peabody College, July 21-23, 1932. The 64-page report, *Education and Racial Adjustment*, includes statements as to "ways and means" of educating for interracial harmony which have been developed by a number of colleges, as well as abstracts of a series of unusual addresses presented at the conference.

INDOCTRINATION

In the March, 1933, number of *Progressive Education* (Vol. X, No. 3), George A. Coe contributes to the current discussion of indoctrination in an article, "Shall We Indoctrinate?" After careful examination of terms and implications, the author concludes that "though the method of indoctrination perfectly fits a desire to perpetuate special privilege, it is out of line with desire to bring special privilege to an end."

GEORGIA EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Mr. Roy W. Davis, Boys' High School, Atlanta, was chairman of the social-science meeting held in connection with the meetings of the Georgia Education Association at Savannah on April 21. The program included greetings from H. G. Swayne, head of the History Department, Savannah High School; a paper on "Methods and Materials for Vitalizing the Social Sciences," by George C. Moseley, Boys' High School, Atlanta; a historical tableaux by pupils from Savannah schools; and an address by Dr. William F. Ogburn, of the University of Chicago. F.B.

FOREST CONSERVATION

The American Forestry Association (1727 K Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C.) issues the monthly

magazine, *American Forests*, which contains excellent material on conservation and the economic and social aspects of the lumber industry. The magazine sells for four dollars a year, but a special price of three dollars a year is made to school libraries.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY

The March, 1933, number of the *Journal of Geography* (Vol. XXXII, No. 3) contains several articles of interest to teachers of the social studies. Three of the articles in the issue are concerned primarily with the teaching of geography. In "Exhibits of Geography Work," Edna E. Eisen discusses the pictures, maps, and graphs prepared by the pupils in her eighth-grade classes in connection with their work in geography. In "Geography in Detroit Senior High Schools," C. C. Barnes describes the geography courses in the high-school curriculum, the type of organization, the teaching method, the textbook, the number of students enrolled, and the number of trained geography teachers in the Detroit secondary schools. Sue Hoffman, in "An Orientation Unit in Geography," tells how the introductory unit in a fourth-grade course in geography centered around the subject of animals of the world, the "aim being to give the pupils a basic knowledge of the world as a foundation on which to build the more detailed study which was to follow later."

RED CROSS PUBLICATIONS

The American National Red Cross (17th and D Streets, Washington, D.C.) issues a number of publications of value in social-studies teaching. Among them are a Junior Red Cross Calendar, a pamphlet on international correspondence among school children, and the monthly magazine, *Junior Red Cross News* (fifty cents per school year), which contains much excellent material on aspects of social science. All these publications are intended for use in the elementary school; high-school publications include a *Record* for high schools enrolled in the Red Cross, and the magazine *Junior Red Cross Journal* (one dollar a year).

PRESERVING SOURCE MATERIALS

Augustus Frederick Kuhlman, chairman of the A.L.A. Public Documents Committee, contributes to the March, 1933, *Bulletin of the American Library Association* (Vol. XXVII, No. 3) an article of significance to all persons seriously interested in the social sciences. In the concluding paragraph of "Preserving Social Science Source Materials," the author summarizes his pertinent article as follows: "The foregoing discussion traces the beginning of a new movement

that concerns itself with the collection and preservation of the basic records of our civilization in strategic scholarly and geographic centers. This movement was originated by scholars, who need these sources for their researches, but it represents essentially a library function. The categories or types of material to be preserved have been tentatively outlined, and it is hoped that, with the cooperation of social scientists and librarians, they may be refined and adapted to local opportunities to gather significant source materials in each state. It is through such close cooperation between scholars and librarians that the collecting and preserving activities of libraries in each state can be made purposeful, systematic, and effective, in so far as they relate to the primary sources for the social sciences."

THE SOCIAL STUDIES AND SPEECH TRAINING

The Platoon School for February, 1933 (Vol. VII, No. 1) contains an illuminating discussion on the numerous possibilities offered by the social studies for effective speech training. In "The Social Studies as a Medium of Effective Speech Training," Agnes Matlock cites instances and examples of spontaneous, interesting speech work done through the medium of social-science materials.

PUBLICATIONS ON SAFETY

The National Safety Council (One Park Avenue, New York City) issues a number of pamphlets as well as a monthly magazine, *Safety Education* (one dollar a year), which are useful for classes in civics and modern problems. A list of the publications, including handbooks, manuals, and posters, may be secured by addressing the Education Division of the Council.

TRAINING IN APPRECIATION OF THE EXPERT

In the March, 1933, issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology* (Vol. VI, No. 7), Joseph R. Geiger states in an article entitled, "A Neglected Factor in Education for Citizenship," that "one of the crying needs of the hour in democratic America is the discovery of some means of increasing the prestige of the expert." The author feels that the present training in citizenship in our schools does not lead to an intelligent appreciation on the part of prospective voters of the ideal of government by the best, "and an intelligent persuasive respect for the authority of those best qualified to govern." As a means of building up an appreciation of the importance of the expert in government, the author stresses the importance of insight into the nature of reflective thinking on the part of all the citizenry.

HEALTH PUBLICATIONS

The American Medical Association (535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago) publishes a number of pamphlets and reports which are useful to the teacher of social civics and modern problems. Of special importance is the magazine, *Hygeia*, published by the Association for general distribution at three dollars a year. Pamphlet publications deal with such topics as child welfare, public health, health problems in education, conservation of vision, and the exposure of nos-

trums and quacks. A complete list of publications designed for the layman may be secured upon request to the Association.

THE AVERAGE CITIZEN AND HISTORY

In "Mr. Average Citizen and History," in the *Detroit Social Science Bulletin* for March, 1933 (Vol. I, No. 2), Raymond C. Miller writes: "History, properly studied, is not propaganda, and let it be said emphatically that is its chief value, in a world too full of special pleaders. The student of history learns to demand facts and to spurn snap judgments; he learns to discount prejudices and passions both in himself and in others; and he learns when and under what circumstances 'his opinion is as good as anyone else's.' Conscious of the long sweep of time, he is aware that nothing is so inevitable as change, and nothing so futile as the belief that all change is good. And from the knowledge that conflict is seldom right against wrong, but rises between men who believe themselves right, comes the caution and modesty and respect for others which alone can make tolerance anything but a wordy theory."

MODEL ASSEMBLY OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The Case of China and Japan before the League of Nations: A Dramatization of the Events of 1931-1933, prepared by Mrs. Lewis Jerome Johnson and Sir Herbert A. Ames, Kt., has just been issued by the educational committee of the Massachusetts Branch of the League of Nations Association (40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston). The dramatization, in five acts, is based primarily on official League reports and is the fifth such publication of the same group; earlier dramatizations deal with the League sessions of 1928, the dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay, the case of the *S. S. Lotus*, and the Manchurian events of 1931. The latest dramatization was first presented before the School of Politics of the Massachusetts League of Women Voters at Radcliffe College, Cambridge, in January, 1933. It is issued as a fifty-page pamphlet for the use of schools, colleges, and clubs; copies may be secured from the Association at forty cents each.

PROPAGANDA

In "Propaganda and the Curriculum" in the March, 1933, number of the *Teachers College Record*, Thomas H. Briggs concludes that "It is obvious to all who are informed and reflective that education supported by society should perpetuate society and promote its interests. It is postulated that our education is not now generally expected to attempt this function and that it is achieving it to no respectable degree. It is clear that it can do so only by a propaganda that inculcates the ideals of a democratic society and indicates how those ideals should be applied to the important problems of life. The first step is the clarification of the ideals. Only with clarified ideals as a basis can public education justify itself and make for the common good. And such clarified ideals should be popularized and applied by the most skillful propaganda that educators can devise."

Book Reviews

Edited by PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, *Columbia University*

The French Revolution. By Charles Downer Hazen. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1932. 2 volumes, 1077 pages. \$7.50.

The appearance of these volumes from the pen of so eminent a student of continental Europe as Professor Hazen is an event of major importance in American scholarship. To his task of interpreting this era, so fascinating to most Americans, the author has brought ripe scholarship, a sympathetic understanding of the human values involved, and a gift for happy expression. More than thirty years ago Professor Hazen contributed to the literature of the Revolution a penetrating and thoughtful study: *Contemporary American Opinion of the French Revolution*, and more recently a single volume upon the *French Revolution and Napoleon*. Since that time many have been awaiting the more complete synthesis contained in the volumes under discussion.

The work covers the period 1789-1799, with a very full discussion, filling more than one-third of the first volume, of the Old Régime. It is an interesting fact that of the better known manuals of the period, only one, that by Louis Madelin, covers identically the same period as Professor Hazen. The more usual practice has been to conclude at the end of the Terror, as Mathiez did, or to regard as a unit the entire period 1789-1815, characteristic of the volumes of Bourne, Mathews, and Rose. However, when we leave the domain of the short manual and consider specialized studies of the Revolution, we find an infinite variety, depending upon the purpose, point of view, or the ambition of the scholar in question. It is quite easy to imagine Mr. Hazen producing one or more additional volumes, developing the same political, social, and economic forces into a narrative of the Consulate and the Empire. Thus the restriction of his discussion to the initial ten years of the epoch is perfectly defensible.

In the present work, in so far as mechanical features are concerned, the books are admirable. Print, maps, and index are excellent; the style is attractive; a well-rounded narrative emerges. The author has woven into the work an impressive amount of illustrative quotation from his comprehensive reading in the literature of the Revolution. Almost no reasonable question of the ambitious student, in quest for more material than these two meaty volumes contain, will fail to be answered by the wise counsel contained in the bibliography arranged by chapters. The accurate and helpful opinions which the author expresses upon leading secondary books, specialized studies, and original studies are alone worth long and careful consultation.

To his qualifications as a scholar the author has added the skill required to conduct a swift-moving drama of human life, replete with shrewd interpretation of men and events. This has the effect of awaken-

ing a new interest in the material used, whether it be characterizations of men such as Danton, Robespierre, or Bonaparte, or the unravelling of the confused and frequently contradictory data of the Terror. Thus, King Louis XVI had "private virtues . . . but not public ones. He was good, kindly, modest, forbearing, loyal in his personal attachments, well-intentioned. . . . But his mind lacked all distinction, his education had been poor, his processes of thought were slow, hesitating, uncertain. Awkward, timid, without elegancies or graces of mind or body, no king could have less to the manner born, none could have seemed more out of place in the brilliant, polished, and heartless court (p. 109)." With Marie Antoinette the author happily falls midway between the school of harsh and prejudiced condemnation, and the equally inaccurate school of uncritical admiration. Gracious and charming she was, but also proud, frivolous, and lacking in the tact and wisdom necessary to one in her position (pp. 110-112). For some of the other leading players a phrase from Hazen will suffice. Necker was "a middle-of-the-road reformer (p. 137)"; Calonne was "that rare phenomenon, a sunny secretary of the treasury, a model of amiability, a person who received everyone with a smile, and sent everyone away either with the thing desired or with rosy anticipations (p. 145)."

Extremely able is the author's analysis of Danton: "Above all was he the embodiment of energy, in speech and in action, a driving personality, capable of rapid decision, and ruthless execution, always in the thick of the battle, a man of low moral tone, unscrupulous and venal, it appears, in money matters, a man of athletic mold, powerful as an ox, pock-marked, ugly in feature—'my ugliness,' he said, 'is a positive force'—coarse, ribald, jovial, friendly, noisy, with a mane of disordered hair, a voice of thunder, and annihilating gestures. . . . As an orator, . . . Danton was an athlete, not an artist (pp. 536-537)." The more noticeable or interesting qualities of Mirabeau, Robespierre, and other leaders are presented with an equal directness. The more colorful pictures of the Revolution: the storming of the Bastille, the march to Versailles, the meeting of the Estates General, and the fall of Robespierre, are all presented in excellent, vivid chapters.

Of special interest are two chapters in the author's second volume. The first is *Economic Aspects of the Terror* and deals in a very thorough way with the efforts to regulate food supply and punish hoarding and speculating in the grain supply of the nation. While not original work, resting largely upon M. Mathiez' study *La Vie Chère et le Mouvement Social sous la Terreur* and Marion, *Histoire Financière de la France*, they are especially useful here as assisting the reader to whom the French works are not avail-

able, and are furthermore in direct relation to the present tendency to explore the economic portions of the Revolutionary period. The other noteworthy chapter is *Northern Italy in 1796* which is very useful in preparing the reader for the environment of the campaigns of Napoleon in that region to follow immediately.

As to Napoleon, the author seems to have expressed more happily than many writers those influences at work upon the young general's mind after he had received the command of the Army of Italy, elevated by the Directors to that place not so much by the influence of Josephine as by their convictions he was the only man for the job. "At any rate," says the author, "Bonaparte finally had an important command, and he now married Josephine. The favors of fortune at last came raining down thick and fast after the lean and lonely years. Two days after his marriage he left his bride in Paris and started for the front, in a mingled mood of desperation at the separation and of exultation that now his opportunity had come . . . he hastened on to meet the enemy and, as was quickly evident, 'to tear the very heart out of glory.' The wildness of Corsica, his native land, was in his blood, the land of fighters, of Machiavellian politics into which he had been thoroughly initiated, the land of the vendetta, of lawless energy, of bravery beyond compare, the land concerning which Rousseau had written in happy prescience twenty years before: 'I have a presentiment that this little island will some day astonish Europe (p. 886).'"

Most writers on the French Revolution, including Professor Hazen, are in sympathy with its general direction and with the main accomplishments of the period. Not so unanimous are they in pointing out what leaders or which activities were most instrumental in bringing about the vast improvements. So that with all this apparent unanimity as to the general result, there is limitless difference and disagreement as to the details of the picture. M. Gaxotte, whose interesting though unscholarly book the reviewer discussed in this JOURNAL (January, 1933), declared that everyone necessarily wrote on the Revolution from a point of view, that of his own background and belief, and that, according as the author was conservative or radical, Protestant or Catholic, Frenchman or outsider—so his "Revolution" would bulk large in those particulars which seemed, due to his own experience, most meaningful. Shrewd as this remark is, it does not follow necessarily that thorough scholarship must necessarily succumb to it. And this tendency, if it be one, Mr. Hazen seems to have escaped. He does seem to be moderately a supporter of Aulard in his high opinion of Danton, quoting Sorel (p. 781) to that general effect without further comment; his analysis of the great popular leader, as quoted above, is by no means blind to the defects and weaknesses of the man. He is equally unbiased as to Robespierre, but unimpressed by his statesmanship ". . . he was a man with a system, who believed in his ideas with an intense and fanatical sincerity, and who felt that he had a great and high mission to accomplish (pp. 789-790)." In

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general, though no study of even the scope of this could possibly do justice to the subject; one of such difficulty and complexity that, to paraphrase the statement of Professor F. M. Fling, a scholarly and adequate treatment of the period has yet to be written (and perhaps never will be), yet it seems that of all the general treatments of the subject to be written in this country, Professor Hazen's two volumes are the fairest and the most interesting and the best from the literary standpoint. And though some might be disposed to regret that a more lengthy account of the economic phases of the Revolution was not included, and that so many of the personal or biographical sketches of leading figures were embodied in it—after all is said, these are matters of opinion and of emphasis. No matter of downright indispensability is neglected and the logic of the study is compact and convincing. Above all, Professor Hazen has achieved that which so few historians have the ability to accomplish, the writing of a piece of good literature in the historical form.

COURTNEY R. HALL

Adelphi College

The Rise of the City, 1878-1898. By Arthur Meier Schlesinger. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933. xvi, 494 pp.

The Quest for Social Justice 1898-1914. By Harold Underwood Faulkner. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931. xvii, 390 pp.

In comparison with their forbears, teachers and students as well as the general readers of American history are doubly blessed. In the first place the treatment of history has become more scientific. More than ever before emphasis is placed upon precision, exhaustive research and a dispassionate effort to portray facts as they occurred. At the same time both the materials and the perspective of history have been broadened. During the last half century new phases of human activity have increasingly received the attention of the investigator. Political historians who once held the stage almost alone have been elbowed to one side by those who insist on a more synthetic portrayal of our civilization. Geographical and other environmental influences, intellectual movements, sociological elements, and economic and psychological factors rather than the lone thread of politics now find place in the multi-colored fabric called history. The writer of social history endeavors to treat life as a whole and in so doing he tries to get at its permanent and compelling forces. In other words he seeks to chart the master-tides which move beneath the surface currents and eddies of our political and constitutional development.

By all odds the best account thus far of America's social development is to be found in the twelve-volume series entitled *A History of American Life*, planned and edited by Arthur M. Schlesinger and Dixon Ryan Fox. Eight volumes are already available. Six of the eight have been reviewed in the pages of this journal. Of the two listed above, one has just come from the press. Both conform with their predecessors in evidence of wide acquaintanceship with the sources, chapter arrangement, bibliography, excellency of editorship

and format. Professor Schlesinger's volume, it will be noted, is somewhat fatter than its companions but the theme of the volume as well as quantity and importance of the contributory material warrant the additional one hundred pages.

Never before have the people of America been confronted with such a maze of complex problems. Never before has there been more need for intelligent leadership—a leadership sufficiently informed historically, to force home a general realization of the fact that our civilization is no longer predominately agrarian, individualistic and rural, but industrial, collectivistic and urban, and that a new set of solutions must be found if we would solve our present difficulties. The appearance of *The Rise of the American City* is, therefore, timely, for it is with the origin and genesis of this urban civilization that Professor Schlesinger is particularly concerned.

The first two chapters are devoted to the less urbanized sections of the country—the South and the West. In bold yet deft strokes he portrays the South emerging from the deep shadows of Reconstruction, and at the same time gradually realizing that the old order was forever gone and that it must build a new and more modern social-economic structure. Likewise, the old glamorous, adventurous West fades away with the coming of the railroads and the myriads of husbandmen bent upon making homes for themselves and their families. He then turns to the older sections of the country where, by the eighties, the new civilization was rapidly taking root. Here we find an admirable account of the rising city, of its lure for the country boy and girl and for those millions of Old World dwellers who swarmed to our shores during the last decades of the nineteenth century, of the city's varied problems and of its influence upon education, literature, science, invention, the fine arts, social reform, health, religion, the use of leisure and lastly our economic and political life. No one can read the pages of this volume without a better understanding of why the last sixty years have witnessed a titanic struggle between two cultures—one agrarian and static and the other urban and dynamic. The workmanship of this volume is well-nigh perfect and its author should derive great satisfaction from the thought that he, perhaps more than anyone else, has done most to restore these two hitherto neglected decades to their proper place in the story of American civilization.

If one did not know that the appearance of Professor Faulkner's volume preceded that of Professor Schlesinger's by two years he might with every reason declare, that the author of *The Quest for Social Justice* had builded on the Schlesinger volume. Even though this was not the case, the *leitmotif* of Professor Faulkner's volume is to all intents and purposes the same, namely, the decline of agrarianism with its accompanying laissez-faire philosophy and the growth of industrialism and urbanism with all their attendant abuses, and the crying need for social justice and reform. In many respects, Professor Faulkner's volume might, on the content side, well be considered as the fruit of the continued process of industrial preemption and exploitation which has so markedly characterized America since

the Civil War. The author meticulously traces the story of the growth of big business and the increasing rapacity of "malefactors of great wealth" and the resulting social changes: the disappearance of free land, continued urbanization the prevalence of corruption in city, state, and nation, the development of class feeling, and the rising demand for more democracy in the form of social control. The chapters dealing with labor, the position of women and children, and the decline of laissez-faire are particularly informing. So also are the chapters concerning religion and culture. Incidentally, but significantly, the author shows that while many Americans were bent on the quest for wealth and others on a more equitable distribution of that wealth, all were unmindful of the storm clouds of international strife which were soon to engulf the world in a frightful catastrophe.

In this volume Professor Faulkner admirably demonstrates his great skill as a historian by remaining close to his main thesis and by the manner in which he has illustrated his thesis with a multitude of details without violating the historical tenets respecting precision and regard for fact.

Clearly here are two masterpieces in the field of social history. Both are skillfully planned, finely proportioned, admirably written, fair and exact in their appraisal of events and persons, open-minded and impartial. Like the other volumes of this series, they deserve to be widely and carefully read.

C.

The Heavenly City of the Eighteenth Century Philosophers. By Carl L. Becker. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1932. vii, 168 pp., \$2.00.

The four Storrs lectures contained in this small book represent an attempt, based on a sceptic's attitude towards human pretensions to logic and rationality, "to show that the *Philosophes* demolished the Heavenly City of St. Augustine only to rebuild it with more up-to-date materials." The product is a witty book, written with the detachment that skepticism provides, but warmed by the persistent admission that the author is himself one of the gullible human beings whose self-deceptions he pictures. The whole might be summed up as a sermon which applies to the eighteenth century the adage that each generation rewrites history in the light of its own obsessions. It must have been pleasant to listen to the lectures. It is probably more pleasant to read them and to detect how Professor Becker has resisted the temptation to compress his epigrams to the point where they could convey less than the traditional "half the truth." Perhaps no good historian can bring himself to be down-right epigrammatic, but, even so, literal-minded readers should be alert for the warnings (honestly given) that this book is full of traps for them, as for instance when a paradox turns out not to be a paradox.

It is difficult to write about these lectures bluntly and briefly and anyway they should be read by students of any century since the seventeenth for the light they throw on the past and on our own "specious present." They reveal the most intelligent kind of erudition, although their learning is nearly always lightly worn.

The first lecture, "Climates of Opinion," sketches the transition from existence conceived of as a divinely determined drama to our own "Whirl is king, having deposed Zeus." The second, "The Laws of Nature and of Nature's God," shows how the philosophers worked their way from divine revelation to revelation out of nature and came hard up against the problem of evil. The third, "The New History: Philosophy Teaching by Example," demonstrates the philosophers' tacit admission that reason had failed them, and their use of selective historical writing to wage indirectly their wars against the flagrant abuses which they attributed to revealed religion and barbarism. The fourth, "The Use of Posterity," reveals how, since God could not be their judge, the philosophers consistently appealed to posterity to understand their discontent, approve their reforms and honor their martyrdoms. It closes with some salutary comment on the Russian revolutionaries of our own day and our responses to their faith.

B.

Education for Empire Settlement. By Alex. G. Scholes. Longmans, Green and Co., London, 1932. xii, 250 pp. 7/6.

This is another volume in that steadily growing and valuable series of imperial monographs published under the auspices of the Royal Empire Society. Under a somewhat ambiguous title Mr. Scholes has written a painstaking and exhaustive study of juvenile migration, in which he has sketched the history of the movement to 1914, treated the recent developments in considerable detail, and, finally, has analyzed the social aspects of juvenile migration with reference to Great Britain, the dominions, and to future policies. He shows how a program for the settlement of juveniles throughout the empire passed from mere "transportation" to a most important project in which the British and dominion governments and many private philanthropic societies became vitally interested. This evolution, however, was not exclusively one of size, it was also one of character. Where the earliest efforts were in behalf of juvenile offenders, the chief characteristic in more recent years has been to take Poor Law children, orphans, and others who seemed to have no particular future in England, and to aid them to become substantial citizens overseas.

In preparation for their life in the dominions, the children are subjected to a most careful scrutiny. The governments of Great Britain and the respective dominions to which they are sent, as well as the particular agency, if any, that oversees their migration, examine their character and antecedents very carefully. Every effort is made to see that an excellent quality of juveniles is transferred to the colonies. Furthermore in the colonies the people to whom the children are to be

WAR OUT OF NIAGARA

By Howard Swiggett

No. 2, New York State Historical Association Series. Here is the story of Walter Butler, valiant, luckless Loyalist who led the Tory Rangers in the Revolution. \$3.50. Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York, N.Y.

farmed out are looked into with no less care. Inspections both of the children and the homes to which they go take place at regular intervals, and all agencies interested in settling the children in their new homes cooperate to prevent exploitation and dissatisfaction. Due to occasional criticism in these matters the standard of administration has become very high.

This brief sketch of the main topics of Mr. Scholes's book indicates its value. To give any detailed summary of its contents, including the work and character of the individuals who have largely sponsored the whole project, is scarcely possible, for the book itself is in many ways a compendious summary of facts concerning juvenile migration. As such it is most informing on a side of imperialism about which we know all too little. There can be no doubt about the author's belief in the policy of directed juvenile migration as an unqualified benefit to England, to the dominions, and to the children. Perhaps he is a little inclined to accept the administrative machinery set up as evidence of the value of the whole project. It is a little unfortunate, also, that the study stops at 1928, for although the last few years are not to be regarded as normal, they should also not be regarded as completely abnormal. While juvenile migration has not been as vitally affected as adult migration by economic depression, there can be no gainsaying the fact that a continuation of present circumstances will have a considerable effect on such schemes as Mr. Scholes has analyzed here. But in any case he has written a timely and important study, one of interest to historians, sociologists, and those interested in social reform.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

The Myths of the North American Indians. By Lewis Spence. Farrar and Rinehart, New York, [1932]. xii, 393 pp., illus. \$5.00.

A Preliminary Study of the Ruins of Cobá, Quintana Roo, Mexico. By J. Eric Thompson, Harry E. D. Pollock, and Jean Charlot. The Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1932. vii, 213 pp., plates and maps.

Anthropometry of Adult Maya Indians. A Study of Their Physical and Physiological Characteristics. By Morris Steggerda. The Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1932. iv, 113 pp.

Studies in American archaeology and anthropology are becoming increasingly numerous, and each month some new discovery is made concerning man's early past in the Western Hemisphere. Among the most prolific writers in this field is Lewis Spence the author of the first volume here listed. For nearly a generation he has been popularizing the story of the North and South American Indians. In this volume which is one of a series entitled *Myths and Legends of the World* the author has attempted to furnish "the reader with a general view of the mythologies of the Red Man of North America, accompanied by such historical and ethnological information as will assist him in gauging the real conditions under which this most interesting section of humanity existed." (p. v) To accomplish this aim Dr. Spence has dealt with myths and legends of

the Algonquian, Iroquois, Sioux, Pawnees, and Indians of the North and Northwest. His volume is illustrated with thirty-four pictures most of which are colored. The whole work is a valuable hand book and should be used as such.

The second volume listed above is a cooperative treatment of one of the important archaeological discoveries among the Maya remains in Mexico. The book is an excellent example of the type of careful work being done by the Carnegie Institution in its attempt to push back our knowledge of early man in America, and while it is a preliminary study it is minute in detail, interestingly written, and magnificent in illustration.

The third volume is also the work of the Carnegie Institution but it deals with present conditions, rather than with the past, in somewhat the same region as the second book. The author has studied the physical measurements of 600 males and 450 females belonging to the Maya race in the Mexican state of Yucatan. Innumerable statistical tables are used to make comparisons. From this study Mr. Steggerda concludes that the present Maya Indians are as a race short, thick-set, long-armed, brachycephalic and have a high metabolism and low pulse rate. For the average reader this book will be found too technical, but for the anthropologist it will be of considerable value.

A. CURTIS WILGUS

The George Washington University

The Eighteenth Amendment and Our Foreign Relations. Robert L. Jones. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1933. vii, 192 pp. \$1.75.

One of the chief difficulties met by the Federal Government in its attempts to secure compliance with the laws to enforce the Eighteenth Amendment has been smuggling across our borders and from outside our territorial waters. This work is a discussion of the diplomacy involved in persuading other nations to give that government at least some degree of cooperation in this peculiarly difficult task and to grant it wider powers to make its attacks on rum-running effective. It goes into some detail as to how treaties or conventions with the various countries concerned have been negotiated, as well as analyzing, perhaps somewhat prolixly in view of their general similarity, their content and estimating how far they have achieved their objective. Although the author discusses the effect of public opinion in the various countries on the fate and direction of diplomacy, the subtitle "How other nations have viewed our great experiment," given on the outside binder, is painfully misleading. While the problem of the relations between national and international law, as illustrated by Prohibition, is posed, it is not very thoroughly analyzed. The even more fundamental implications for international relations raised by conflicting national customs, objectives and interests, when the latter are incorporated in legal systems, is given scarcely any attention. The United States' use of pressure in the economic sphere to compel nations in need of financial aid or general cooperation to accede to its desires is repeatedly mentioned and explained, but the ethical validity and the long-term effects of such diplomacy on public opinion receive no consideration.

Indeed, the fundamental defect of this work is the author's conviction of this country's invariable rightness, and he is willing to rely on general concepts of international comity or a narrow legalism whenever the one or the other is more useful to his purpose. On the whole the book is readable, though not inspiring or intentionally provocative, but it is at times marred by poor English and an awkward use of unusual words.

THOMAS I. COOK

Columbia University

The Reorganization of Education in China. By the League of Nations' Mission of Educational Experts. Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, Paris, 1932. 200 pp. Available through the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston. \$1.00.

In May, 1931, the Council of the League of Nations, following a request from the Chinese Government, ordered the appointment of a mission of experts to visit China "for the purpose of studying the present situation in regard to public education and the long traditions of culture peculiar to the ancient civilization of China, and with a view to submitting recommendations on the most suitable procedure to be adopted to insure a better adaptation of this educational system to the present-day conditions of life (p. 11)." The Mission, composed of outstanding European educators including Professors Carl H. Becker of Berlin, M. Falski, of Poland, P. Langevin of France, and R. H. Tawney of England, spent three months of the fall of 1931 in China. The failure to appoint an Ameri-

can representative on the Mission is not without significance and lays their report open to serious criticisms as Dr. Stephen Duggan has so trenchantly pointed out in a recent Bulletin of the Institute of International Education.

In view of the fact that American educational influence has been dominant, particularly since 1919, the Mission would have profited by the presence of an American educator. It severely criticizes the Americanization of Chinese education, but is fair in asserting that "it must not be the aim of the development (of Chinese education) to Americanize or Europeanize China, but to modernize China's own national and historical individuality (p. 24)." The Mission indeed makes this their chief point emphasizing the statement that "*The fundamental problem which arises in regard to education in China is not a question of imitation, but of creation and adaptation. . . . New China must mobilize its forces, and from its own history, from its own literature, from all that is truly indigenous extract the materials for a new civilization that will be neither American nor European but Chinese* (pp. 28, 29)."

Their survey covers all phases of government education in China and their proposals are equally comprehensive. The government educational system appears to be weak and faulty at almost every point. Since the issuance of the report Chinese educators have made laudable efforts to improve the system following in general the recommendations of the Mission. Yet so long as the disastrous civil wars continue, there is

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little hope of meeting the educational needs of the people. Meanwhile in this period of turmoil it is possible to experiment and improve in restrictive areas. There are now in existence a number of experimental schools, mostly private, from a study of whose various methods the Ministry of Education may in the future derive valuable suggestions. The issuance of this report is a signal service rendered to China by the League. It is the most comprehensive and penetrating analysis of China's educational problems that has appeared and will prove at once a stimulus and a guide to Chinese educators.

CYRUS H. PEAKE

Columbia University

Sacajawea. By Grace Raymond Hebard. Glendale, A. H. Clark Company, 1933. 340 pp. \$6.00.

At the time of the St. Louis Exposition of 1904, Dr. Hebard became interested in the Shoshone woman who did so much to enable Lewis and Clark to reach the Pacific. At intervals since that time she has collected all the available knowledge concerning her and her family, notably the recollections of the Shoshones of Wyoming and the Comanches of Oklahoma. As a result, she has been able to effect a complicated piece of historical re-creation, which is the more extraordinary because her subject and her relatives lived and acted in the western United States in circumstances not very productive of the usual forms of historical evidence. By the mass and the reassuring consistency of the data, however, a very convincing narrative has been set up. It traces the life of Sacajawea from the time of her capture by the Minnetarees, through her association with Charbonneau and Clark on the way to the Pacific and at St. Louis, to her flight to the Comanches, her extraordinary trip to Wyoming, and her respected old age near Forts Bridger and Washakie. The careers of Charbonneau and his son, Jean Baptiste, the papoose whom Sacajawea carried to the Pacific, and of Basil, Sacajawea's adopted son, are also pieced together. Some interesting sidelights are thrown on the American travels of Prince Paul Wilhelm of Württemberg.

In her anxiety to omit nothing which contributes to her historical reconstruction, Dr. Hebard has written a somewhat repetitive book. She publishes 83 pages of appendices, large parts of which have already appeared once or twice in text or footnotes. It would have been better to have worked out some scheme whereby a single printing of the evidence would have done the work. Yet the volume is very interesting, not only for its romantic account of what must have been a winsome, remarkable woman, but for constant revelations of the extraordinary among both Indians and whites. It should be the definitive treatment of its subjects. And motor pilgrims may continue to beat a path across the Indian cemetery at the Shoshone reservation in Wyoming with the assurance that they are really seeing Sacajawea's grave. B.

Elements of Economics. By Charles Ralph Fay. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932. 629 pp. \$1.68.

Economics. By Fred Rogers Fairchild. American Book Company, New York, 1932. 544 pp. \$1.60.

Principles of Economics. An Elementary Textbook. By Arthur L. Faubel. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1932. 522 pp. \$1.60.

Lives in the Making. Aims and Ways of Character Education. By Henry Neumann. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1932. 370 pp. \$2.25.

The three economics textbooks are similar in that they all attempt to pare down the body of classical economic doctrine for use in high school work. The student who reads Mr. Fay's chapter on consumption, or Professor Fairchild's treatment of money and banking, or Dr. Faubel's sections on distribution, all of which are typical, will learn most of the assumption and deductions and definitions which were used to rationalize very imperfectly the economic life of early nineteenth century England. But the most perspicacious student will fail to get a description of the economic life of today, or of the problems arising out of that life. When the authors attempt description, they portray present conditions less than what the situation would be if all of the old rules worked perfectly. All three books assume that the single entrepreneur is typical, and Professor Fairchild's treatment in Chapter 19 would indicate to a student that competition today serves to keep prices down to cost and to guide production along wholly useful lines.

Problems are stressed according to their traditional importance. The tariff question is treated extensively, and while each volume outlines the older tariff controversies, not one mentions the present situation in regard to the tariff and the war debts. The business cycle and unemployment are dealt with only perfunctorily. The failure to describe the actual workings of economic society makes it impossible to organize materials on a functional basis. Government is treated in sacrosanct isolation, when in fact no student can understand modern government without studying its particularistic attempts at control in various fields as problems arise in those fields.

There can be no successful discussion of problems of social control in books which describe the workings of *laissez-faire* and which assume that *laissez-faire* has not lost any of its validity. No book indicates that taxation is being used to regulate business and to redistribute wealth, although all of them outline Adam Smith's principles of taxation. The treatment of proposals for reform is pointless because the books do not describe conditions which may call for remedy. In addition Mr. Fay and Professor Fairchild have made some factual errors in presenting the Russian experiment.

The economics texts fall short because they do not build intelligent student interest around the actualities of life today. It seems that Dr. Neumann's book has the same defect. The teaching of ethics must be based more and more upon a description of the central ethical problems of modern industrialism. It cannot be centered about Lear and Lancelot.

LEON KEYSERLING

Columbia University

Trends of Civilization and Culture. By Dr. Charles Gray Shaw, New York University. American Book Company, New York, 1932. Pp. 671. \$3.50.

In presenting *Trends of Civilization and Culture*, the publishers have in mind its use for college orientation courses. The book has appeared in a trade edition under the title *Surge and Thunder*, with the above as a sub-title. It contains twenty-four chapters and forty-six illustrations. These chapters cover a wide range of subjects, including "The evolution of man," "Greek culture," "The industrial form of civilization," "Types of national culture," etc. A guide to further readings may be found in the liberal sprinkling of footnotes. Although the volume contains a wealth of information it unfortunately lacks stimulus and sparkle. It can hardly be expected to appeal to college students. One may even question whether the general reader will be seriously disturbed by its "thunder."

CARL LUDWIG LOKKE

Columbia University

Book Notes

The source book of Alaskan history by F. B. Whiting entitled *Grit, Grief and Gold* (Seattle, Peacock Publishing Co., 1933. 247 pp.), centers around the activity in railroad building of Michael J. Heney. Told by the surgeon of the railroads, Dr. Whiting, it is full of vivid recollections of Heney and the other engineering pioneers in Alaska. It does not give a history of the White Pass and Yukon Railway, nor of the later Copper River project, nor of the government built road from Seward northwards. Instead it contains a series of short chapters touching upon life in the Alaskan region, including a sketch of George Carmack the discoverer of gold. "Soapy Smith" the outlaw is overthrown; "Stikine Bill" is adopted as a fellow laborer; and other famous Alaskans, such as Fred Stone, the comedian, Rex Beach, the author, and Jack Holt of the movies are shown in the narrative.

Almost prophetic of the recent assumption of powers by President F. D. Roosevelt, is the study by Norman J. Small entitled *Some Presidential Interpretations of the Presidency* (Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1932). He says that "the next predominant Executive, meriting classification with the five Chief Magistrates previously mentioned [Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, T. Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson], will exercise the equivalent, if not a greater, amount of power than that assumed by his predecessors. Nothing is more evident in the history of the Presidency than the steady accumulation of power by that office. . . . Let one occupant of the Presidency exercise an additional power, and the advantage thus acquired is never abandoned. His immediate successors may hesitate, or may not have the courage to employ this asset; but neither their silence nor their inactivity is to be interpreted as evidence of its final surrender."

Program of Sessions of the National Council for the Social Studies

Chicago, Ill. July 3, 5, 1933

(Place of meeting to be announced later)



Joint Session of Department of Secondary Education and National Council for the Social Studies-
Department of Social Studies

Monday Afternoon, July 3, 1933

Chairman—Ernest D. Lewis, President, Department of Secondary Education

W. G. Kimmel, "The Social Studies Section of the National Survey of Secondary Education"

Discussion leader to be announced later

General discussion

Session of the National Council for the Social Studies-Department of Social Studies

Wednesday Afternoon, July 5, 1933

Chairman—W. G. Kimmel, President, National Council for the Social Studies.

Theme: The Social Studies Investigation

A. C. Krey, Director, "The Progress of the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools"

R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago, "One Hundred Years of History in the Secondary Schools of the United States"

Ernest Horn, University of Iowa, "The Problem of Meaning in the Social Studies"

Catherine Tierney, Supervisor of Social Sciences, Chicago Public Schools, "The Social Science Exhibit in Connection with the National Education Association Meeting and the Century of Progress"

Simon van der Stel's Journal of his Expedition to Namaqualand, 1685-6, edited and translated by Gilbert Waterhouse (Longmans, Green, and Co., London, 1932. xxviii, 183 pp. 25 s.) is one of the most interesting of travel diaries. The expedition grew out of the interest of the Dutch East India Company in the mineral deposits in the Copper Mountains some hundreds of miles north of the Cape settlements. Its purpose was to cultivate friendly relations with the Namaquas and to "consider the possibility of exploiting the ore commercially." The journey lasted five months and proved successful. The *Journal* itself contains numerous observations on the weather, the landscape, and native habits, as well as the terms of a treaty made with the Namaquas and the prospecting experiences of the Dutch in the Copper Mountains. The treaty provided for perpetual peace and mutual aid between the contracting parties but no agreement was made with the Namaquas concerning the Copper Mountains "because we did not yet know the local conditions." In order to supply that deficiency miners set to work boring shafts and digging out the ore after which it was smelted and a good quality of copper produced, so that the prospects "looked remarkably promising." In addition to the report of the journey this volume contains a large number of sketches of plants and animals as well as some maps and a picture of a Namaqua man and woman. The sketches are very skillfully executed and are accompanied by brief descriptive comments. Doctor Waterhouse, who is professor of German in the University of Dublin, describes fully, in an introduction largely given over to textual problems, the history and character of the manuscript. He deserves much gratitude for placing this skillfully edited and valuable *Journal* at the disposal of historians.

—C. F. MULLETT

The editors of *The Berkshire Studies* made a good choice for an ungrateful task when they asked Professor R. G. Trotter to crowd into the usual short space the modern history of *The British Empire-Commonwealth* (New York, Holt, 1932. ix, 131 pp. \$1.00). He somehow gets the salient developments since 1783 into his pages and does so with an ease which comes only from familiarity. Naturally Canada looms large, but that is as well for American students, and also a recognition of her leadership in the invention of Dominion status. There are, perhaps, three ways of giving unity to the story: to use Zimmern's image of the empire as a procession of polities towards complete autonomy; to relate the process to the rise and fall of free trade in Great Britain; or to cast it in terms of the close relation which exists between autonomy and a share either in military effort or in the formation of foreign policy. Professor Trotter indicates all three, but does not attach his narrative to any one or make any one carry the full load of interpretation which it properly might. This leads him to the only statement with which this reviewer would radically disagree—"it would be a mistake to assume that it [the war of 1914-1918] was a turning-point in the history of British imperial relations." There may have been no great change of direction, but there was an astounding acceleration. Some

exception might be taken to the choice exercised in the accounts of South Africa and Ireland. The Monroe Doctrine deserves a place in any discussion of Canada's naval and military record. Manifest Destiny, American and Canadian, explains much. Finally, why should not Joseph Conrad get a place beside Kipling as an intoxicator of the English with tropical empire? These are small points which do not invalidate a most remarkable achievement in the resolution of awe-inspiring complexity.—B.

Turning aside from his narration of diplomatic episodes, Professor R. B. Mowat, of the University of Bristol, has produced a freshly written volume, *England in the Eighteenth Century* (R. M. McBride and Co., New York, 1932. 281 pp.), based upon the better secondary accounts and incorporating many of the newer viewpoints. The volume is topically arranged with chapters on politics, the clergy, social life in country and town, commerce, and the like. While such an arrangement is not conducive to usability as a textbook, it is pleasant to find a book free from the excesses of the chronological method. In his various chapters Mr. Mowat has employed the happy practice of depending largely upon some illuminating book. For example, in dealing with the "unity of civilization" in the eighteenth century, he leans heavily but not slavishly on Goldsmith's *Present State of Polite Learning in Europe*; in the chapters on politics he has profited by the researches of Namier, and his knowledge of the American Revolution is based largely on the works of Channing and J. T. Adams. Furthermore, he introduces appropriate excerpts from a few well selected sources, or from some scholarly account which has added to our understanding of a given topic. That such a slim volume can add greatly to our knowledge of the eighteenth century is not to be expected but it does add to our understanding. It is happily less provincial than many products of the more conventional English historians. Finally, no one can quarrel either with the majority of Mr. Mowat's facts or his point of view. There are some respectable if short book lists, half a dozen ordinary maps, and as many more pictures of politicians.—C. F. M.

Books on History and Government Published in The United States from February 17, to March 18, 1933

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, James T. The march of democracy; Vol. 2, from Civil War to World Power. N.Y.: Scribner; 475 pp.; \$3.50.
- Amer, Francis J. The development of the judicial system in Ohio from 1787 to 1932. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press; 45 pp.; 50 cents.

- Dangerfield, Royden J. In defense of the Senate; a study in treaty making. Norman, Okla.: Univ. of Okla. Press; 382 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Demarest, W. H. S., compiler. The anniversary of New Brunswick, New Jersey. New Brunswick, N.J.: Anniversary Committee, Box 16; 426 pp.; \$3.00.
- Evans, Lawton B. All about Georgia [history]. N.Y.: Am. Bk. Co.; 107 pp.; 40 cents.
- Fassett, Frederick J., Jr. A history of newspapers in the District of Maine, 1785-1820. Orono, Me.: Univ. of Me. Press; 242 pp. (4 p. bibl.); 75 cents.
- Fleming, William P. Crisp County, Georgia, historical sketches. Cordele, Ga.; 200 pp.; \$1.00.
- Gould, E. K. British and Tory marauders on the Penobscot. Rockland, Me. Author; 46 pp.; \$2.00.
- Green, Edwin Luther. A history of Richland County [South Carolina]; Vol. 1, 1732-1805. Columbia S.C.: Author, c/o Univ. of S.C.; 385 pp.; \$4.50.
- Haines, Charles G. The American doctrine of judicial supremacy. Berkeley, Calif.: Univ. of Calif. Press; 723 pp. (14 p. bibl.); \$6.00.
- Jones, Robert L. The Eighteenth Amendment and our foreign relations. N.Y.: Crowell; 199 pp.; \$1.75.
- Lippmann, Walter, and others. The United States in world affairs; 1932. N.Y.: Harper; 371 pp. (9 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
- Love, Annie C. History of Navarro County. Dallas, Tex.: Southwest Press; 278 pp.; \$2.50.
- McLaughlin, A. C. The foundations of American constitutionalism. N.Y.: N.Y. Univ. Press; 184 pp.; \$3.00.
- Palmer, Charles, editor. A history of Delaware County, Pennsylvania, 2 vols. Harrisburg, Pa.: Nat'l Hist. Assn.; \$12.50 each.
- Preston, John H. Revolution, 1776. N.Y.: Harcourt; 440 pp. (14 p. bibl.); \$2.90.
- Ring, Elizabeth. The Progressive movement of 1912 and Third Party movement of 1924 in Maine. Orono, Me.: Univ. of Me. Press; 68 pp.; 3 p. bibl.
- Waters, W. W. B.E.F., the whole story of the Bonus Army. N.Y.: John Day; 288 pp.; \$2.50.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Hansen, Hazel D. Early civilization in Thessaly. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press; 222 pp.; \$4.00.
- Kenyon, Frederic G. Books and readers in ancient Greece and Rome. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 142 pp.; \$1.50.
- Newman, Rabbi J. The agricultural life of the Jews in Babylonia, between the years 200 C.E. and 500 C.E. N.Y.: Oxford; 227 pp.; \$2.25.
- Ptolemy, Claudius. Geography of Claudius Ptolemy. N.Y.: N.Y. Pub. Lib.; 302 pp.; \$60.
- White, Hugh G. E. Monasteries of the Wadi 'n Natrun, pt. 2. N.Y.: Metropolitan Museum; 544 pp.; \$15.
- Willard, Theodore A. The lost empires of the Itzaes and Mayas. Glendale, Calif.: A. H. Clarke Co.; 450 pp.; \$6.
- Williams, Caroline R. Decoration of the tomb of Perneb. N.Y.: Metropolitan Museum; 110 pp.; \$8.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Bolingbroke, Henry St. John, 1st Viscount. Bolingbroke's defense of the Treaty of Utrecht. N.Y.: Macmillan; 160 pp.; \$1.35.
- Coulton, George G. Scottish abbeys and social life. N.Y.: Macmillan; 301 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$3.
- Kippis, A. Captain Cook's voyages. N.Y.: Knopf; 410 pp.; \$1.00.
- La Rochefoucauld, François de. A Frenchman in England, 1784. N.Y.: Macmillan; 282 pp.; \$2.50.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Boehn, Max von. Modes and manners; Vol. 2, The sixteenth century. Phila.: Lippincott; 289 pp.; \$4.00.
- Davidson, Helen M. The development of the spirit of nationality, 1789-1877. Pittsburgh: Author, 6814 Thomas Blvd.; 307 pp.; \$1.50.
- Donovan, H. D. A. and Cooley, C. C. Current European history. N.Y.: Oxford Bk. Co.; 128 pp.; 48c.
- Eddy, George S. The challenge of Europe. N.Y.: Farrar and Rinehart; 344 pp.; \$2.50.
- Marriott, Sir John A. R. The evolution of Modern Europe, 1453-1932. N.Y.: Putnam; 442 pp.; \$4.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Roddie, Lt. Col. Stewart. Peace patrol [British military mission after the armistice]. N.Y.: Putnam; 338 pp.; \$3.50.
- Winterton, Earl. Pre-war. N.Y.: Macmillan; 322 pp.; \$3.25.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Henke, William A. The rough road to civilization. La Crosse, Wis.: Grandview Press; 403 pp.; \$2.50.
- Thomson, H. C. The case for China. N.Y.: Scribner; 322 pp.; \$2.75.

BIOGRAPHY

- Long, John C. Lord Jeffrey Amherst. N.Y.: Macmillan; 394 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Basso, Hamilton. Beauregard, the great Creole. N.Y.: Scribner; 347 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$3.50.
- Marschall, Phyllis, and Crane, John. The dauntless liberator, Simón Bolívar. N.Y.: Century; 319 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$2.50.
- Chamberlayne, John H. Ham Chamberlayne-Virginian. Letters and papers of a [Confederate] officer, 1861-1865. Richmond, Va.: Dietz Pr. Co.; 400 pp.; \$6.00.
- Cochran, Samuel L. Simon Kenton. Fort Worth, Tex.: the Author, 820 Thomas Place; 156 pp.; \$2.00.
- Jillson, Willard R. Lincoln back home. Lexington, Ky.: Transylvania Press; 176 pp.; \$3.25.
- Hume, A. M. S. Sir Walter Raleigh. N.Y.: Knopf; 292 pp.; \$1.00.
- Johnson, Alvin P. Franklin D. Roosevelt's colonial ancestors. Boston: Lothrop; 222 pp.; \$2.50.
- Roosevelt, Mrs. James. My boy Franklin. N.Y.: Long and Smith; 115 pp.; \$1.50.
- Hebard, Grace R. Sacajawea; guide and interpreter of the Lewis and Clark expedition. Glendale: A. H. Clarke Co.; 340 pp.; \$6.00.

- Cochran, Negley D. E. W. Scripps. N.Y.: Harcourt; 325 pp.; \$3.00.
 Pinchon, Edgcomb. Viva Villa! [Life of Pancho Villa.] N.Y.: Harcourt; 383 pp.; \$3.25.
 Renier, Gustaaf J. William of Orange. N.Y.: Appleton; 182 pp.; \$2.00.
 Winkler, John K. Woodrow Wilson; the man who lives on. N.Y.: Vanguard Press; 310 pp.; \$3.50.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Bailey, Stanley H. The framework of international society. N.Y.: Longmans; 97 pp. (4 p. bibl.); 75c.
 Conwell-Evans, T. P. Foreign policy from a back bench, 1904-1918. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 200 pp.; \$2.50.
 Langer, William L., and Armstrong, H. F. Foreign affairs bibliography; books on international relations, 1919-1932. N.Y.: Harpers; 568 pp.; \$5.00.
 Laski, Harold J. Democracy in crisis. Chapel Hill: Univ. of N.C. Press; 276 pp.; \$1.50.
 Pierce, Bessie L. Citizens' organizations and the civic training of youth. N.Y.: Scribner; 445 pp. (56 p. bibl.); \$2.00.
 Toynbee, A. J., and Boulter, V. M.; Survey of International affairs, 1931. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 562 pp.; \$6.00.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Approaches to History, IV. V. G. Simkhovitch (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
 The Historian and Society. C. A. Beard and G. M. Wrong (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
 Pitfalls of the Biographer. Rupert Hughes (*Pacific Historical Review*, March).
 History and the Biographer. Wallace Notestein (*Yale Review*, Spring).
 The Lure of Pioneering in Historical Research. R. J. Ferguson (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
 The Study of Economic History. R. H. Tawney (*Economica*, February).
 A Fragment on Sovereignty. C. H. McIlwain (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
 An Introduction to the History of Women in Medicine. Kate C. Hurd-Mead (*Annals of Medical History*, January). I, Medical Women before Christianity.
 The Early Development of the Law of Contraband of War, II. P. C. Jessup and Francis Deák (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
 Modern Government. Ernest Barker (*Contemporary Review*, March).
 The Courts and History. Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
 Is Dr. Kuehler's Conception of Early Dutch Anabaptism Historically Sound? John Horsch (*Mennonite Quarterly Review*, January).

- Witchcraft. C. C. C. Williamson (*Irish Ecclesiastical Record*, February).
 The Economic Chaos in Central Europe. Friedrich Hertz (*Contemporary Review*, March).
 Present-Day Forces in European Politics. W. B. Munro (*American Scholar*, March).
 Ozanam as Historian. Charles Souvay, C. M. (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
 The Formation of the New East India Company of Calonne. F. L. Nussbaum (*American Historical Review*, April).
 With Napoleon to St. Helena. Rachel Leighton (*Cornhill's*, March). From the commonplace Book of a Shropshire Country Gentleman.
 Philip II of Spain. Aubrey Gwynn (*Studies*, March).
 German Medieval Artillery. R. R. McCormick (*Field Artillery Journal*, January-February).
 Prologue in Manchuria. Lieut. C. C. Wood (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, March).

BRITISH EMPIRE

- Cromwell's Edinburgh Campaign. A. H. Campbell (*Scots Magazine*, March).
 A Side-Show of the Eighteenth Century. Sir J. W. Fortescue (*Blackwood's*, March). Expedition against Louisburg.
 Captain Frederick Marryat, Royal Navy. Com. H. P. Mead (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, March).
 The Oxford Movement in America. Edwin Ryan (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
 The Scottish Parliament: What It Was and What It Was Not. Thomas Innes (*Juridical Review*, March).
 The Genesis of Provincial Rights. Norman McL. Rogers (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
 Canada's Title to the Arctic Circle. V. K. Johnston (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
 Lord Northington and the Laws of Canada. R. A. Humphreys and S. M. Scott (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The Start of the Meuse-Argonne Campaign. Col. C. H. Lanza (*Field Artillery Journal*, January-February).
 Poland's So-Called Corridor. I. G. Paderewski (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
 German Military Power since Versailles. Gen. Wilhelm Groener (*Foreign Affairs*, April).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Toronto Meeting of the American Historical Association. H. E. Bourne (*American Historical Review*, April).
 The Epic of Greater America. H. E. Bolton (*American Historical Review*, April). Presidential address of the American Historical Association.
 Bases of American Foreign Policy during the Past Four Years. H. L. Stimson (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
 American Military History. Maj. C. C. Benson (*Military Surgeon*, March).
 Social Issues before the Supreme Court. Felix Frankfurter (*Yale Review*, Spring).

- The Democratic Party in Office. J. T. Adams (*Yale Review*, Spring).
- The Irish in "The South." Michael Kenny (*Studies*, March).
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THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

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THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD

DECEMBER, 1815

BATTLE OF WATERLOO ENDS WAR!

Napoleon Exiled at St. Helena

Wellington and Blücher Victorious

With the victory of the English and Prussians at Waterloo, the great Napoleonic Wars have come to a dramatic close.

The Emperor mustered the last army he was destined to command, and moved north to Belgium, to meet the English and the Prussians who were stationed there. His direct purpose was the capture of Brussels. Wellington moved toward Waterloo to stop the French forces. Blücher with his Prussians was between Charleroi and Wavre. On June 18th the French struggled with the English at Waterloo in vain. The Emperor relied for victory on keeping the two armies of the enemy apart, and to this end had sent General Grouchy to meet Blücher. In this plan he failed, for the Prussians reached the field of Waterloo at four o'clock in the afternoon. The defeat of the French now became a rout. 30,000 of Napoleon's troops had fallen, and he had lost all of his guns. But in spite of this he returned to Paris full of determination to raise another army and defeat the allies when they should enter Paris. A surprise awaited him when he reached the Capital on June 21st. France had had enough. He was no longer the hero. There remained nothing for him to do but abdicate his throne, see Louis XVIII supplant him and see his country forced to pay an indemnity of 70,000,000 francs.

A BOON TO MINERS

Sir Humphrey Davy, Director of the Chemical Laboratories of the Royal Institution, has invented a safety lamp for use in the mines. It is a curious fact that almost simultaneously Mr. George Stephenson, the engineer, invented one identical in principle, but differing in detail. Both operate on the principle that a white heat is needed to ignite coal gases.

DEATH KNELL OF SLAVERY

The Congress of Vienna, while taking no stand to abolish the slave trade, condemned the trade in human beings as contrary to all principles of civilization. England, Sweden, and Holland have already abolished the traffic. Eight years ago the United States led the way by forbidding the importation of slaves.

DELEGATES AT VIENNA DRAW UP TREATY

Although many small states were represented at Vienna, they were without power because Austria, Russia, Prussia, England, and—thanks to the diplomacy of Talleyrand—France were the deciding voices in all of the decisions.

Restorations

The Bourbons have been restored to their thrones in France, Spain, and Naples. In Italy the former rulers are restored to their duchies and petty states; the Pope regains the Church Lands. In the German States many of the rulers have been re-

stored. The latter states have formed into a Confederation to supplant the old Holy Roman Empire.

The Changed Map

Russia is given most of Poland, and Prussia gets Swedish Pomerania, one-third of Saxony, and territory on both banks of the Rhine. Coblenz and Cologne fall within these boundaries. Austria gets Galicia, Salzburg, the Tyrol, Venetia, and Lombardy. England, although not receiving any land on the Con-

(Continued on page 4)

BOURBONS RETURNED TO FRENCH THRONE

Prince Louis Stanislaus Xavier de Bourbon is again on the throne of France. This time he is more secure than when he was placed in power by the Allies at the First Treaty of Paris. As Louis XVIII, he has taken up the task of restoring his country to a place of power among the nations of Europe. The return of this family to the throne is not heralded with joy by most of the French people. The memories of the tyranny of Louis XIV and Louis XVI are too well known to give the people a feeling of absolute safety

now. Then too, there is the hated Count of Artois in line of succession; during the Revolution his conduct was detestable. He has freely expressed his disgust with a king who has no more power than does the King of England. His friends have often heard him remark that he would rather chop wood than be such a one. Louis XVIII, however, does not hold this view, yet in spite of this, no one can believe that the restoration of the House of Bourbon can be permanent.

SPAIN'S DEBT OF GRATITUDE TO ENGLAND

To England, Spain is indebted for the fact that at last she was able to drive the French troops north of the Pyrenees. In the midst of so much confusion resulting from the long years of war, we have failed to realize the parts, perhaps, that each nation has played in the final triumph. To drive out the French forces from Spain, England spent over £100,000,000, furnished the armies of Spain and Portugal with clothing, arms, and munition. For them she won 19 battles, sustained 10 sieges, took 4 fortresses, and captured or killed 200,000 of the enemy. Besides these material aids, England gave the lives of 40,000 men whose bones lie buried in the Spanish Peninsula.

KING OF ROME REMAINS IN AUSTRIA



"The King of Rome," Napoleon's four-year-old son, will not accompany his mother, Maria Louisa, to the little Duchy of Parma awarded to her by the Congress. He will remain with his grandfather the Emperor at the Schonbrunn Palace in Vienna. The title "Duke of Reich-

(Continued on page 3)

Dethroned Emperor On Distant Isle



No chances of escape are taken this time with the Emperor. Exile is not to be a glorious vacation as before; no title, no great army, no brilliant court as at Elba. No fond members of the family, mother and sisters, to make life happy for him. Exile this time is a reality. On the bleak island of St. Helena off the west coast of Africa, Napoleon is left, well guarded, to spend his remaining years alone with his conscience. His star rose rapidly, and set with the same speed. Like Alexander the Great he had only just begun the conquest of which he dreamed, but dreamed in vain. The rapid rise to fame reads like a fable. In outline it is:

- 1769 Born of poor parents at Ajaccio, Corsica
- 1779 begins education in Paris
- 1796 made Commander of the French Army in Italy
- 1799 overthrows the Directory and makes himself First Consul
- 1802 makes himself Consul for life
- 1804 crowned Emperor of France
- 1808-1812 in control of most of Europe
- 1814 defeated by allies, forced to abdicate, exiled to Elba
- 1815 escapes, returns to rule France for 100 days
- 1815 June 18th, defeated at Waterloo
- 1815 July 7th, forced to abdicate and exiled to St. Helena

ALEXANDER I FORMS HOLY ALLIANCE

Believing that God has destined him to preserve peace in Europe,

(Continued on page 2)

SOCIETY NEWS

A Child Prodigy

Elizabeth Barrett, daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Edward Barrett of Hope End, Herefordshire, though only six years old is a precocious student of Greek. Within two years she will have completed the reading of Homer in the original. This little girl is also displaying literary talent and has written many delightful verses.

Elaborate Dinner in Paris

The Duke of Wellington entertained at an elaborate banquet in Paris in honor of the surrender of the city. Many distinguished guests were present, and the occasion was one of the most brilliant social events of the season. Many toasts were given after the dinner, among the cleverest being that of the German General Blücher. He said: "May the pens of the diplomats not undo what we have won with the sword." The Duke was, as usual, the perfect host.

Poet Laureate Celebrates

A few friends gathered with Mr. Robert Southey at his home in Keswick in the Lake Country, to celebrate the first anniversary of his becoming Poet Laureate.

Gay Season for Court

The Portuguese Court, now in Rio de Janeiro, is enjoying a gay season. They have been there eight years, and plan to remain several years more.

Mrs. Bonaparte Goes to Rome

Mrs. Letitia Bonaparte, the mother of the exiled Emperor, is leaving Paris to make her home in Rome, where her brother is a Cardinal. In her hour of sadness she wishes to be near those who can comfort her declining years. She was with Napoleon in Elba, then returned to France with him for "The Hundred Days." Although she was denied her request to accompany him into exile, she was permitted to have a three-day visit with him at his former home in Paris, "Malmaison," before he sailed to St. Helena.

Honors Late Queen

King Frederick William III of Prussia has just instituted the "Order of Louise" in honor of the much-loved Queen Louise who died in 1810.

Celebrates Third Birthday

Little Robert Browning, the precocious son of Mr. and Mrs. Browning of Southampton Street, London, entertained a group of his playmates at his parents' home in honor of reaching the age of three years.

Byron-Milbanks Wedding

On January 2nd, George Gordon, Lord Byron, and Miss Anne Isabella Milbanks, the daughter of Sir Ralph and Lady Milbanks of Kirkby Mallory, were united in marriage at Seaham in Durham. The young people have been intimate friends for nearly two years, and the announcement of their engagement in September 1814 was of interest in so-

ciety circles. The groom has won many honors with his poems, and at present is working on "Hebrew Melodies" to be published in April.

New York Business Man in England

Mr. Washington Irving of New York is traveling in England in the interest of Irving Brothers Hardware Company. As he is a talented writer, it is probable that he will do some literary work before he returns to America.

Mrs. Hugo Goes to the Country

Owing to differences in political views between General Hugo and Mrs. Hugo, the latter has taken her children and retired to a country estate in France. The General, who led the French troops in Spain, naturally favors the Emperor, while his wife is an ardent Bourbonist. In this view she is supported by her young son Victor.

ALEXANDER I FORMS HOLY ALLIANCE

(Continued from page 1)

Alexander I of Russia has formed the Holy Alliance for this purpose. The King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria have signed the document by which they agree to let Christ's Gospel be their guide in politics. Although it is not taken seriously by the other powers, it is thought that they will eventually all sign it. Metternich calls it a "sounding nothing," and Castlereagh thinks it is a "piece of sublime mysticism and nonsense."

England is feeling keenly the effect of the wars. Her debt is now 860,000,000 pounds. One out of every six of her adult male population served in the army, navy, or militia. 40% of her ships were lost.

Throughout the Napoleonic Wars, the Prince Regent of England has permitted the French collectors for the Empress Josephine's botany collection, to work unhindered. He gave orders that they should be at all times honored. Her flowers were her comfort as long as she lived. Whatever the feeling toward the Emperor, all the nations have had no feeling but that of pity for the deserted Empress.

INTERIOR DECORATION

The comfortable furniture of the pre-war days has gone. The men of France dress a la Brutus, and the women in their Athenian gowns have influenced styles in furniture. Nothing short of Greek sofas and Greek chairs will suffice. Everything is strictly classical. France copies from originals—then other countries copy the French copies. Curtains both at windows and at beds should be supported by gilt lances. In the Continental countries the chairs, tables, sofas, commodes, and pianofortes are of mahogany as during the last century, but in England this wood has been discarded for rosewood. Mahogany pieces, now considered out of date can be purchased at a very low figure.

FASHION CHAT

The newest fashions for women introduce the raised waist line, a style becoming to but very few types of beauty. Some critics call the innovation hideous. The long skirt hangs full from just below the bust. The tendency is toward the untrimmed skirt, but some evening gowns, mostly of muslin, the material in high favor, have lace ruffles or ruffles of the same material at the bottom and also a few inches

row in the back with a somewhat wider front to shield the eyes. Flowers, ribbons, and plumes are used for ornaments. With evening dress it is correct to wear plumes in the hair. Little children will be dressed exactly like their elders. Coats this year follow in waist line the dresses, and have long tailored sleeves with cuff of the goods, or, like the collar, may be made of a contrasting material. Either full, or three-quarter length is approved by the best dressmakers. Skirts of dresses should clear the ground for street wear, but they lie upon the floor in gentle folds for house or evening wear.

Men too will strike a new note this season. No more are seen the round hats and pantaloons, so fashionable during the French Revolution. Even in dress one cannot escape now the influence of Napoleon. The figure of the real gentleman has undergone a change. The innovation of the frock coat is pleasing to nearly every type of man, for he finds his beauty much enhanced by the style. The coming in of the looser trousers is ringing a change in the fashion of shoes, which are now concealed by the overhanging trousers. For the Opera or for Court functions, of course, the knee breeches are proper. It is noticed also that the beaus are discarding the use of the wigs and powder generally. Wellingtons, Cosacks, and Blüchers, are indicative of present trends in fashion.



above. Short puffed sleeves are correct, and with these are worn short gloves. For street wear a long, close-fitting sleeve, with puff at the top, are quite the rage. The bonnet may be of the high crown type, or of that new fetching model known as the "Beehive." The brim is very nar-

GAY LIFE AT THE CONGRESS

(Special from Vienna)

Vienna had one round of gaiety during the time the Congress was convening in the Austrian Capital. Royalty was there in great numbers, and there was the most dazzling array of beautiful women that the city had ever seen. At all functions Alexander I of Russia was enthroned like a deity of Mt. Olympus among fair women. His flattery won them heart and soul.

A young Dutchman, Jonkheer Boreel, attending the Congress, wore a monocle or single eyeglass. This original style is being copied all over Europe.

The English were severely criticised for their unfashionable dress. The long years of the War have cut them off from Paris, the style center.

Maria Louisa and her young son, the "King of Rome," stayed much in retirement at Schonbrun Palace, attending few society events.

The Princess of Thurn, sister of the late Queen Louise of Prussia,

accompanied her brother-in-law, the widowed Frederick William III.

King Frederick of Württemberg left Vienna in disgust, but the disgust was not all on his side. This most colossal royal body in Europe was attending one of the many banquets given in honor of the delegates. At home his dining table has a huge half circle cut out of it to accommodate his figure, but the table of his host had no arrangement for his comfort. During the meal he became angry at a remark made by a fellow-banqueter. Rising up violently to reproach him, he overturned the table and all its contents. He left for home early the next morning.

A grand concert was given for the delight of the visitors. One hundred players performed at once on one hundred pianos.

A new amusement park, The Prater, was started in the city to furnish jolly entertainment for the guests. Every night found it thronged to capacity.

Art, Music, Drama, Literature

Mr. Franz Schubert of Vienna, who has been attracting attention by his musical compositions, will soon give up school teaching to devote all of his time to music.

Mr. Leigh Hunt the Essayist is happy to be released from prison where he has been forced to spend two years because of an attack in the columns of "The Examiner," of which he was editor, upon the Prince Regent of England. During his imprisonment he was much comforted by the visits of his sympathetic friends, Byron, Moore, and Brougham.

The artist Turner is attracting much comment by his two new paintings, "Dido Building Carthage," and "Crossing the Brook." The critics are differing in their opinions regarding the merits of the work. All agree that in the latter work he has displayed a good knowledge of landscape.

Miss Jane Austen at her home in Chawton is busily engaged on her new novel, "Emma." It will be out early next year. Those who have read her "Sense and Sensibility," "Pride and Prejudice," and "Mansfield Park" will await with interest the publication of her new book.

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RECENT LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND

On January 15th the "Apothecaries' Act" passed by Commons, affirms that it is necessary for every medical man to give evidence that he possesses a minimum knowledge of medicine before being allowed to practice.

Floggings in the British army have been reduced to three hundred lashes. They were formerly accustomed to administer 1500, then the number was reduced to 1000, and now to this very small number. Some officers may substitute solitary confinement for the lashes.

Through the humane exertions of Sir Samuel Romilly, England has abolished the penalty of capital punishment for a large number of crimes.

The harsh restrictions against the Unitarians have been removed through a Bill introduced by William Smith. The old law had been in force since the days of William and Mary, and read: Denial of the Doctrine of the Trinity shall be punished as follows:

First offence—denied privilege of holding office or place of trust.

Second offence—4 years imprisonment, and no right ever to be a guardian, executor, or purchaser of lands.

Mr. William Wordsworth is finding his reputation as a poet much enhanced by his latest poem "The Excursion."

Philharmonic Societies are springing up rapidly in all of the European Capitals. Their aim is to revive a taste for instrumental music of a high order.

Mr. Henry Raeburn, the Edinburgh painter, is now for the first time exhibiting his portraits at the Royal Academy in London.

The German Goethe at his home in Weimar is mourning the fate of Napoleon. When the latter was ravaging Germany they met, and the admiration was mutual. In spite of popular opinion, he has continued his admiration and now grieves at the sudden downfall of so great a figure and friend.

Mrs. Felicia Dorothea Hemans, the wife of Capt. Hemans, in the midst of her duties presiding over a household and mothering two small boys, finds time for much literary work.

Mr. Carl Maria Von Weber, Director of the Opera at Prague, spent his summer vacation in Munich. While there he composed a delightful piece "Kampf und Sieg," in honor of Napoleon's defeat. When he returned to Prague, he announced to a small group of his intimate friends, his engagement to Miss Carolyn Brandt, the young stage favorite. The wedding will not take place for two years. The musical world is much interested in this happy event.

Sir Walter Scott has given to the world another long poem. It is "The Lord of the Isles." Since the appearance of the "Lady of the Lake" five years ago, he has written one romantic poem a year.

Young Percy Bysshe Shelley is giving much promise as a poet. His latest work is "Queen Mab." It carries out the new idea that is creeping into literature—the perfection of mankind in some future golden age.

THEOLOGICIANS OPPOSE CATASTROPHISTS

Geologists who maintain that the globe has been a series of catastrophes, each of which has closed a long epoch of repose, had been fatal to all living creatures, and had been followed by a new exercise of creative force, are provoking much discussion among people. The appearance of man and of the fauna and flora which now exists had been heralded by the last of the catastrophes. Theologians are strongly opposing geologists.

EXHIBIT

See the Raeburn Portraits
on display
at
THE ROYAL ACADEMY
LONDON

SCHOOL LIFE

The University of Wittenberg, Germany, made famous by the teaching of Dr. Martin Luther, is being moved to Halle.

The University of Basel, Switzerland, founded in 1459, will soon be reorganized.

Two new Universities will be established next year: Liège and Ghent.

Oxford and Cambridge are introducing written examinations to supplement the oral ones.

The University of Finland, 125 years old, is considering moving to the city of Helsingfors.

The University of Berlin, which was founded immediately after the Treaty of Tilsit, is growing rapidly. It has thirty-six teachers, and is paying particular attention to the teaching of science.

During the upheaval since the opening of the century, twelve German Universities have ceased to exist.

French schools are behind those of the rest of Europe, having been closed since 1793 until reopened by Napoleon in 1808.

Russia, fifteen years ago had but three Universities, Moscow, Vilna, and Dorpat. Alexander I is giving much attention to education and ten years ago founded the University of Kharkov and the University of Kazan. Now he is working out a plan for one at St. Petersburg which he hopes to complete within five years. To encourage education, he has issued a statement that in appointments to government positions, holders of degrees will be given the preference.

Heidelberg University is following the example of the city of Venice, who is asking the return of the bronze horses taken from St. Mark's Cathedral by Napoleon. The University is demanding that all valuable manuscripts stolen by the Corsican be returned at once.

University students of Germany have founded a secret society; it was originated by eleven students from Jena, when they returned from the battlefields. Seriousness, sobriety, and chastity are the requirements of admission. The motto chosen is, "Honor, Liberty, Fatherland."

WHO'S WHO AT THE CONGRESS

There has probably never before been assembled in one place for so long a period such a distinguished group of diplomats. Among the most outstanding men one thinks first, no doubt, of Wellington from England, Talleyrand of France, and Metternich of Austria. Among the other worthies are to be mentioned Hardinberg and Humboldt of Germany, Lobo and Saldana of Portugal, Lowenhielm of Switzerland, Noailles, Dupin, and Dalberg of France, Labrador of Spain, Stackelberg and Rasoumovsky of Russia, Castle-reagh, Stewart, Clancarty, and Cathcart of England.

LITTLE CHILDREN NO LONGER AFRAID

Little folks will no longer fear the bogie, "Bony," the very thought of whom has long terrified them. It is not surprising the wee tots have acquired this fear, for even the grown-ups who are superstitious, have believed very wild stories about him. It has been quite enough to tell them that "Bony" will get them, to get them to do anything demanded. One belief is that "Bony" eats three live sheep each day, and all the children he can lay hold of.

Iron bridges bid fair to become popular, and to supplant the old bridge of wood. The new Southwark Bridge across the Thames has cast iron arches, the center one having a span of 240 feet. This is the longest cast iron arch that has been invented. The man who holds the honor is Rennie, the famous inventor.

THE PRATER

Greatest Pleasure Park in Europe

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BAFFLING LETTER AT LAST DECIPHERED

A letter has been lying for many years in the London Post Office. No one claimed it and no one could locate the person addressed. It read: Sirum Fridavy London

A clever clerk recently deciphered it and found it to be for Sir Humphrey Davy.

KING OF ROME REMAINS IN AUSTRIA

(Continued from page 1)

stadt" will be the name by which he will be known, and he will be brought up as an Austrian. As far as possible he will be kept in ignorance about his father and French affairs. How different from the career mapped out for him by the French Emperor.

The new tax on glass is discouraging to the apothecaries for by it they see their profits reaching the vanishing point.

The Contemporary World

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EDITORIAL

The War is over. That colossal figure whose very name for more than fifteen years has sent terror to the hearts of nations now lives alone and disgraced in far-away St. Helena. But in another sense the War is not over, for the suffering it brought into the world is still with us and will be for years to come. The manhood of Europe is depleted; the suffering of the wounded soldiers and of the civilian population is beyond our comprehension; the keenest intellects of the world have been sacrificed. The once proud France is stripped of her colonies, bereft of leadership in European affairs, and outlawed as a military power. Such are the penalties imposed by the "God of War."

Since the Congress has completed its work of redividing the lands of Italy, we cannot help feeling that again Italy is "nothing but a geographical expression." Many little states and many petty rulers, each

jealous of the others, form what should be a united nation. Yet, she is not the same country, divided though she is. There is a new national spirit abroad, and a yearning for unity not so visible before. More than she realized she was influenced by the French rule. New ways have pushed old ones aside, and a struggle between the past and future must go on until the vision of a United Italy becomes a reality.

That crime is on the increase no one will doubt. When comparing figures with those of a decade ago, the result is startling. This is a condition however, that must be expected. With the disbanding of so many armies, hundreds of men in dire circumstances are turned into the civilian world to seek a living. Even the bare necessities of life are not to be had by many of them, so it is little wonder that they turn to theft and other forms of crime as a possible relief.

Ye Editor Heard

Mr. Kennedy of Manchester, England, says that one person in his mill with the spinning machinery could produce as much yarn in a given time as two hundred persons produced by hand fifty years ago.

Mr. König of Saxony reports that cylinder printing was at last practicable.

A group of architects maintaining that Greek architecture, modified for present needs, is in great popularity.

General Blücher blaming the generous spirit of Alexander I and the cleverness of Talleyrand for the fact that France got off so easily.

Mr. Wollaston announces he had completed and illustrated the Atomic Theory, discovered seven years ago by Mr. Dalton.

Three students arguing over who is the leading scientist today. The discussion centered around Berzelius of Sweden, Lussac and Thenard of France, and Davy of England.

Two ladies in a heated discussion over the merits of Scott's poetry as compared with that of Byron.

WORKING FOR NEW LABOR LAW

Robert Owen, the well known philanthropist and factory owner, is giving his untiring effort to securing better laws for child laborers. He is not satisfied with the 1802 law which reduced the working hours of children to twelve a day, and raised the minimum age to nine years.

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THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD

DELEGATES AT VIENNA DRAW UP TREATY

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continent, has her colonial possessions vastly increased by the awarding to her Malta, Ceylon, the Cape of Good Hope, besides some West Indian and African territory.

France Blocked in the Future

To prevent France from expanding eastward, a great "barrier" has been formed along the Rhine. Belgium and Holland are united to form one country to be under the rule of the House of Orange. Adjoining territory on the south is given to Prussia. The neutrality of Switzerland has been guaranteed, to make secure the barrier on the south. Thus, in brief, is the result of the deliberations of the Congress that has been wrestling with the problems for more than a year.

World News Flashes

Canada: A fire in Quebec has destroyed public and private property valued at \$1,300,000.

Brazil: By a treaty of the Regent, Brazil has become a Kingdom. The Portuguese sovereignty is now expressed as the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarves.

Bolivia: The Indians in the southern provinces are again in revolt against the Spaniards.

Denmark has ceded Pomerania and Rugen to Prussia in return for land bordering Holstein.

Russia: A secret political society for the liberation of Greece has been formed at Odessa.

Japan: The Dutch have gained great commercial advantages here, but Russia has failed in her attempt to establish trade relations with the Japanese.

India: Natives in the Nepal District have ceased terrorizing the British subjects.

Commercial Activity

Birmingham, England, is at present producing all the muskets used in the English army. Formerly they were imported from Holland.

Belgium is very prosperous industrially. All her cloth workers are busily employed. Her metal workers have quickly picked up a knowledge of engineering from an immigrant Lancashire mechanic. The country will undoubtedly become a good industrial land, as she has that all-important necessity—coal. She profited much, too, by the eighteen years that she was forced to be a part of France.

Brazil has recently opened her trade to all nations. For the Portugal Regent's part in this matter we are indebted to England for making the suggestion to him. Of all the nations, England will profit most by this trade.

England is producing and lending more than she was in 1793. Her commerce and industry are so active that she quite easily stands the burden of her heavy taxation. On the other hand, France is exhausted; her trade and industry are paralyzed. Her commerce has been interrupted during the long period of the Napoleonic Wars. English tax is five pounds per person, while in France it is but one pound.

VITAL RECORDS

Births

TROLLOP: In London, April 24, to Mr. and Mrs. Trollop (nee Frances Milton) a son, Anthony. Besides the parents, two little brothers welcome the new baby.

BISMARCK: In Schonhausen, Prussia, April 1, to Mr. and Mrs. Charles Bismarck, a son, Otto Edward Leopold.

NEWS FROM OUR NORTH AMERICAN CORRESPONDENT

President Madison, in his Annual Message, urged the necessity of a national uniform currency, and suggested a National Bank.

Baltimore, Maryland, is at present laying gas pipes for the lighting of the city. This will be the first gas-lighted city in the country.

A new magazine of a high literary standard is being launched. It will be known as the "North American Review."

The song written by Francis Scott Key a year ago, entitled "The Star Spangled Banner," is becoming so popular that it is predicted that it may become the American National Anthem.

The Executive Mansion at Washington, having been burned during the late war, is being repaired under the direction of the original architect, James Hoban.

Waltham, Mass., has erected the first power cotton-mill in the United States.

Nearly all the banks in the country have been forced to suspend specie payments.

For the first time the United States is manufacturing her own carriages, factories having been established at Albany and New Haven.

The first Peace Society in the world was founded in New York in August.

Plans are under way for the construction of Erie Canal from Albany to Lake Erie.

Robert Fulton, the inventor of the steamboat, died recently in the very prime of manhood. He was but fifty years of age.

Deaths

MESMER: In Meersburg, Switzerland, March 5, Friedrich Anton Mesmer, aged 82 years. He was the Founder of Mesmerism and has cured hundreds of people of disease. He leaves many disciples to carry on his work.

MURAT: In Pizzo, October 13, Joachim Murat, King of Naples. He is survived by his widow, Caroline Bonaparte Murat.

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